THE SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For JULY 1803.

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NOTICE TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE Verſes by J. C. communicated by a Conſtant Reader, we are ſorry to ſay are too incorrect for publication.

THE Verſes addreſſed to Dr Tytler will appear in our next.

THE Ode to Loch Lomond has been received, and is under conſideration. We ſhall be glad to ſee the Author's propoſed proſe eſſay.

WE muſt decline, for obvious reaſons, entering into any diſcuſſion with our correſpondent N. about the meaning of the word *exactly*; and at the ſame time, we regret that we cannot comply with his wiſh.

THE

SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For JULY 1803.

BIOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT

OF

DR BLACK.

Concluded from p. 372.

DR BLACK having eſtabliſhed the diſcovery of the laws of heat, and its effects in combination with matter, in the moſt incontrovertible manner, by a train of ſimple and deciſive experiments, drew up an account of the progreſs of his inveſtigation, and the doctrine which he founded on it, and read it to a literary ſociety, conſiſting of the members of the Univerſity and ſome other gentlemen, which held weekly meetings for the diſcuſſion of ſubjects in literature and ſcience. This paper was read, as appears by the regiſters of the Univerſity, on the 23d April 1762. He ſoon ſaw the vaſt importance of this diſcovery, and was delighted in laying before his ſtudents a detailed view of the extenſive and beneficial effects of this habitude of heat in the grand economy of nature. During the ſummer ſeaſon, an immenſe magazine of heat is ſtored up, which gradually emerging during congelation, from the water which covers the face of the earth, ſerves to moderate the ſeverity of winter's cold.

DR BLACK's thoughts were not limited to the ſimple caſe of water, but were extended to all the phenomena of congelation and liquefaction, without even excepting the changes that are effected by the functions of animals and vegetables. He conceived that the ſecretion of ſolid matter in animals might be a ſource of part at leaſt of the warmth in them. From obſerving the analogy between the ceſſation of expanſion by the thermometer, during the liquefaction of ice, and the converſion of water into ſteam Dr Black having explained the one, thought that the phenomena of boiling and evaporation of fluids would admit of a ſimilar explanation. As ice requires the combination of a great quantity of heat to bring it to the ſtate of water; ſo water to be converted into ſteam requires another combination of heat. Conſidering the ſlow production of ſteam, notwithſtanding the continual application of heat, the ſcalding power of ſteam, and the great heat raiſed in the refrigeratory of a ſtill, the conviction was ſo ſtrongly impreſſed on his mind, of the proceſs of nature being

being ſimilar in both caſes, that he taught this doctrine in his lectures in the year 1761, before he had made a ſingle experiment on the ſubject. It ſeems indeed to have been the reſult of cautious obſervation, and a careful ſtudy of thoſe facts which the operations of nature conſtantly exhibited. The fundamental propoſition was eſtabliſhed; nothing was wanting but a ſet of experiments to aſcertain the preciſe quantity of heat which was combined in ſteam, in a ſtate not indicated by a thermometer and therefore latent, in the ſame ſenſe that the quantity of heat that reduces ice to the ſtate of water is latent in the water It was not till the ſummer of the year 1764, that he verified this doctrine by experiments which he narrated in his lectures. He obſerved, that whatever time was neceſſary to raiſe water from its ordinary temperature to the boiling point, the ſame fire muſt be applied five times as long, to convert it all into ſteam; and hence he inferred, that the ſteam had carried off 810 degrees of heat. And on the other hand, a pound of water paſſing along the worm of a ſtill in the form of ſteam, communicated 20 degrees of heat to 40 pounds of water in the worm tub; and hence it was inferred, that the ſteam gave out 800 degrees of heat.

It was fortunate for Dr Black, and fortunate for ſcience, that Mr Watt, ſo juſtly celebrated for his reſearches on this ſubject, and for his improvements of the ſteam engine, became about this time his pupil. Mr Watt was led to be particularly intereſted in the phenomena of boiling and the production of vapour, from being then employed in repairing the model of a ſteam engine belonging to the Natural Philoſophy claſs in the univerſity. About the ſame time, Dr Irvine, who was afterwards celebrated for his chemical lectures in the ſame place, became one of Dr Black's moſt zealous pupils. Poſſeſſed of a quick apprehenſion and ſound underſtanding, he was greatly captivated with chemical ſcience, and engaged with ardour in all thoſe inveſtigations which occupied Dr Black's attention. To both theſe gentlemen Dr Black was greatly indebted for valuable aſſiſtance in his reſearches. By their ingenuity in deviſing, and by their indefatigable induſtry and perſeverance in repeating experiments, he derived many proofs and illuſtrations of his doctrines on which he wanted information. It was with the aſſiſtance of Dr Irvine, that Dr Black conducted his firſt ſet of experiments to aſcertain the quantity of latent heat in ſteam; and it was found to be as much as would raiſe ſeven or eight hundred times as much water one degree in its temperature by Fahrenheit's ſcale. This fact Dr Black expreſſed by ſaying, that ſteam contained 700 or 800 degrees of heat latent in it With the aſſiſtance of Mr Watt and a more perfect apparatus, he found afterwards, that the latent heat of ſteam was not leſs than 850; and even exceeding this, according to the diminution of the preſſure of the atmoſphere. Thus was eſtabliſhed a law of nature, of moſt extenſive and important influence; and in this combination of heat is diſcovered the powerful agent by whoſe operation the aſtoniſhing changes which are conſtantly going on around us are effected

In the year 1766, Dr Cullen, then Profeſſor of Chemiſtry in the Univerſity of Edinburgh, was appointed Profeſſor of Medicine, and thus the chemical chair in that univerſity became vacant. The celebrity of Dr Black's diſcoveries was now great, and his reputation as a chemical philoſopher was daily encreaſing both at home and abroad, ſo that he was looked up to as the ſuc-

ceſſor to ſupply the vacancy. He was immediately appointed to the chemical chair at Edinburgh, to the general ſatisfaction of the public. And in this new ſcene he ſaw that his talents would become more conſpicuous, and of more extenſive utility. His mind was ſtrongly impreſſed by the importance of his duties as a teacher; and he therefore formed the firm reſolution of directing his whole ſtudy to the improvement of his pupils in the elementary knowledge of chemiſtry. To engage the attention of his hearers, and to be perfectly underſtood by the moſt illiterate, was conſidered by Dr Black as his ſacred duty, and the moſt important object of his lectures; to deliver plain doctrines in the plaineſt manner; to illuſtrate theſe doctrines by ſuitable experiments, by the exhibition of ſpecimens, and the management of chemical proceſſes; and above all, to avoid abſtruſe philoſophical diſquiſitions, which were ſeldom underſtood, and although they had been underſtood, could not be intereſting or uſeful.

To this reſolution Dr Black ſtrictly adhered. His courſes became every year plainer and more familiar, and were illuſtrated by experiments which were always ingeniouſly and judiciouſly contrived, and neatly and ſucceſsfully performed. The ſimplicity and elegance of his experiments have been always admired. They were exactly ſuited to eſtabliſh the point in view, and were never more than what was neceſſary for this purpoſe. By this perſpicuous exhibition of his ſentiments, Dr Black became a favourite lecturer. His pupils were not only inſtructed, but delighted; and many were induced, by the report of his ſtudents, to attend his courſes, without much reliſh for chemical knowledge, but merely in order to be pleaſed. The ſtudy of chemiſtry became a faſhionable part of the education of a gentleman; and thus was its knowledge diffuſed and extended.

The diſcovery of fixed air by Dr Black opened a new path for chemical reſearch. The nature and properties of this air were examined and aſcertained. Bergman diſcovered its acid quality, and Lavoiſier demonſtrated its component parts. The diſcovery of other airs or gaſes ſoon followed. Vital air or oxygen gas, and its peculiar properties, were announced to the world by Dr Prieſtly, and about the ſame time by the celebrated Swediſh chemiſt Scheele. Thus, in the courſe of a few years, the knowledge of a new claſs of ſubſtances, whoſe exiſtence was not even once ſuſpected, became quite familiar; and thus was eſtabliſhed pneumatic chemiſtry, which includes the doctrines and management of aerial fluids, ſubſtances which like other matter cannot be detected by the eye, but which, on account of their peculiar and extraordinary properties, have led to the moſt ſingular and unexpected reſults in phyſical inveſtigations

To ſome it may appear ſurpriſing, that Dr Black ſeems to have in a great meaſure retired from the field of chemical reſearch, which, after his own important diſcoveries of fixed air and the properties and combinations of the matter of heat, began to be buſily occupied by a great number of diſtinguiſhed philoſophers. But his health precluded him from any exertion or activity either of body or mind. His conſtitution had been always exceedingly delicate, and required the greateſt care and attention to avoid the attacks of a very dangerous diſorder. The ſlighteſt cold affected his breaſt, and often brought on a ſpitting of blood, from which he found he could only be relieved by moderate exerciſe and relaxation of thought. The ſedentary life which ſtudy required was ſo hurtful, that he never allowed himſelf to indulge

in intenſe thinking or puzzling reſearch, without finding his complaints ſenſibly increaſed. He was therefore obliged to be contented as the ſpectator of the ſucceſsful labours of others. Even when he had been often and ſtrongly urged by his friends to publiſh ſomething to the world, by which his claims to the diſcoveries which he had made might be eſtabliſhed and ſecured to himſelf, he never found his health equal to the exertion. He often began the taſk, but was immediately obliged to deſiſt from proſecuting it. The pains he took in forming the plan of a work, and the nice manner in which he attempted to execute it, never failed materially to affect his health.

Indeed Dr Black ſeems to have been ſcrupulouſly nice in publiſhing any thing to the world. His faſtidious notions of a philoſophical performance made him expreſs himſelf with ſome ſeverity on the hurried and ſlovenly publications, as he conſidered them, of many chemiſts. This peculiarity in Dr Black's character, which muſt be deeply regretted, will in ſome meaſure account for the ſmall number of his works which appeared during his life. His diſſertation *De Acido a cibis orto, et de Magnesia*, which was his inaugural theſis, was a work of duty. His *Experiments on Magnesia, Quicklime, and other Alkaline Subſtances*, printed ſoon after, was indiſpenſably neceſſary for the farther illuſtration of the doctrines which were indicated in the inaugural diſſertation. His *Obſervations on the more ready freezing of water that has been boiled*, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions of London in 1774, was alſo called for; and his *Analyſis of the waters of ſome boiling ſprings in Iceland*, made at the requeſt of his friend Mr Stanley, was read before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and publiſhed in their Tranſactions.

Dr Black however continued to devote his whole time and attention to his lectures; and the manner in which he acquitted himſelf in his public character as a profeſſor, no doubt contributed greatly to ſupport and increaſe the high character which the Univerſity of Edinburgh has acquired. He ſoon became one of the chief ornamenrs of the Univerſity. For a period of thirty years the numbers who attended his lectures encreaſed every year. His manner and appearance were peculiarly pleaſing. His voice in lecturing was low and fine; his articulation was ſo diſtinct that it was perfectly well heard by a large audience. His diſcourſe was remarkable for plainneſs and perſpicuity; all his illuſtrations, whether by experiment or by reference to the proceſſes of nature, were quite appoſite; his hearers reſted with the moſt entire confidence on his concluſions, and even the moſt illiterate could not miſtake his ſentiments.

Such was Dr Black's public character. In private life he was not leſs reſpected and beloved. His manner was eaſy, unaffected, and graceful. He entered readily into converſation, whether it was of a ſerious or more trivial nature; and as his mind was copiouſly ſtored with matter, it was at all times pertinent and agreeable. His acquirements were not merely of a ſcientific nature, or only characteriſtic of the philoſopher. To none of the elegant accompliſhments of life was he a ſtranger; and therefore he took his ſhare in any topic of converſation that happened to be introduced, with perfect eaſe, and acquitted himſelf in it with great propriety. He had a very accurate muſical ear, and could ſing and perform on the flute with great taſte and feeling. He could ſing a plain air at firſt ſight, and was an excellent judge of muſical compoſition. Few, indeed,

deed, ſeemed to underſtand better the characteriſtic differences of ſome of the national muſics of Europe. He had not ſtudied drawing; but had acquired a conſiderable power of expreſſion with his pencil, both in figures and landſcape. In expreſſing the paſſions, he ſeemed to have the talent of a hiſtory painter. His opinion of a piece of painting or ſculpture was always reſpected even by good judges. Figure, indeed, of every kind attracted his attention; in architecture, furniture, and in ornament of every ſort, it was never a matter of indifference. Even a retort or a crucible was to his eye an object of beauty or deformity. The circumſtance of form in which Dr Black ſought for or perceived beauty in any object, ſeems to have been ſome ſuitableneſs or propriety. Indeed this love of propriety was the leading ſentiment of his mind, the ſtandard to which he appealed in all his judgments, and the ruling principle of his conduct.

"As Dr Black," ſays his learned friend and relation, Dr Ferguſon, "had never any thing for oſtentation, he was at all times preciſely what the occaſion required, and no more. Much as he was engaged in the details of his public ſtation, and chemical exhibitions, his chambers were never ſeen lumbered with books and papers, or ſpecimens of mineralogy, &c. or the apparatus of experiments. Nor did any one ſee Dr Black hurried at one time to recover matter which had been improperly neglected on a former occaſion. Every thing being done in its proper ſeaſon and place, he ever ſeemed to have leiſure in ſtore; and he was ready to receive his friend or acquaintance, and to take his part with cheerfulneſs in any converſation that occurred. And let me remark, that no one ever with more eaſe to himſelf refrained from profeſſional diſcuſſions of any ſort, or converſation in which he was acknowledged ſuperior; or with leſs ſelf-denial, in mixed company, left the ſubject of converſation to be choſen by others. Many years member of a ſociety of noblemen and gentlemen of the firſt rank of judges, lawyers, military men, and profeſſed men of letters, he kept his place with the moſt eaſy propriety, having knowledge ſufficient for giving him an intereſt in the converſation of each, and for taking a reſpectable ſhare in it, without exhibiting any peculiarities ariſing from his more accuſtomed habits of thought."

The delicacy of his health required him to limit the number of thoſe with whom he aſſociated. This ſociety, and another ſmall evening party, or club of gentlemen, were the only public companies he frequented. Dr Black indeed had neither the temper, nor was he diſpoſed to indulge the feelings of a recluſe. He loved ſociety, and he felt himſelf beloved in it. When he returned to Edinburgh, he had the happineſs of rejoining his friend Dr Smith, whoſe ſociety and friendſhip it had been his good fortune to ſhare while he reſided at Glaſgow. An attachment which was mutual and equally confidential commenced between him and Mr Hume, and continued without interruption till the death of the latter. Simplicity and integrity were the prominent features in the characters of both. Many of his hours of relaxation were ſpent in the ſociety of his relation Dr Ferguſon, Mr Home, the celebrated author of the tragedy of Douglas, Dr Alexander Carlyle, and ſome others, diſtinguiſhed for ſuperior talents and elegant accompliſhments, who were attached to him and to each other, not from profeſſional eminence, ſimilarity of ſtudies, or uniformity of opinions,

but from experience of ingenuity, candour, and good taſte.

THERE were other gentlemen with whom Dr Black lived on the moſt friendly footing, and who were mutually attached to each other from having ſimilar philoſophical purſuits. Among the number may be mentioned particularly Sir George Clerk of Pennycuick, his brother, Mr Clerk of Elden, Dr Roebuck, and Dr Hutton. With the laſt of theſe gentlemen Dr Black lived in the cloſeſt habits of intimacy. "He made up," ſays Dr Ferguſon, "in phyſical ſpeculation all that was wanting in any of the reſt of his acquaintance. Yet would it be difficult to ſay whether the characters of Dr Black and Dr Hutton, ſo often ſeen together, were moſt to be remarked for reſemblance or contraſt. Both profound in phyſical ſcience, both rigid adherents to fact, in excluſion of all hypotheſis, or the moſt ſpecious conjecture, both of conſummate humanity and candour. Dr Black was ſerious but not moroſe. Dr Hutton was playful without petulance. The one was always on ſolid ground; and of him it might be ſaid, *nil molitur ineptè*. The other, whether for pleaſantry or ſerious reflection, could be in the air, ſpeculate beyond the laws of nature, or their phenomena, and treat the common notion of body, extended and impenetrable, as a vulgar error." But with this diverſity of manner, the two friends were united by mutual reſpect for each other's talents, and had the moſt implicit confidence in each other's integrity and worth. Dr Hutton, of all the friends now near him, was the only one to whom Dr Black communicated all his ſpeculations in chemical ſcience, and the progreſs of all his literary labours. In ſuch ſociety Dr Black paſſed his days calmly and cheerfully, reſpected and beloved, and conſcious that he was worthy of this regard. But in the quiet ſcenes of domeſtic life, when he was viſited by his numerous relations, he appeared to the beſt advantage, for he enjoyed them moſt.

TOWARDS the cloſe of his life, the infirmities of age began to bear heavy on a feeble conſtitution, and obliged him gradually to curtail thoſe hours of walking and exerciſe, which he had always found neceſſary for his health and comfort. He went leſs abroad, and only received the viſits of his moſt intimate friends; for company and converſation began to fatigue him. Even his duty at College, which had for ſome years been ſhared with an aſſiſtant, became too much for his diminiſhed ſtrength, ſo that at laſt he declined lecturing altogether. His conſtitution, it has been obſerved, was never robuſt; but, as he advanced in years, it gradually became more delicate and frail; every cold he caught brought on a ſpitting of blood. He ſeemed, however, to have this unfortunate diſpoſition of body almoſt under command, for he never allowed it to proceed far, or to occaſion any tedious illneſs. Thus he ſpun out the thread of life to the laſt fibre. He guarded againſt illneſs by reſtricting himſelf to a moderate or rather abſtemious diet, and he met his encreaſing infirmities with a proportional encreaſe of attention and care; regulating his food and exerciſe by the meaſure of his ſtrength. It is wonderful with what ſkill and ſucceſs he made the moſt of a feeble conſtitution, by thus, preventing the acceſs of diſeaſe from abroad. He enjoyed a health which was feeble indeed, but ſcarcely interrupted, and a mind ever undiſturbed with the calm and cheerful uſe of all his faculties. A life ſo prolonged had the advantage of preſent eaſe, and the proſpect when the juſt period ſhould arrive,

of

of a calm diſſolution. His only apprehenſion was, that of a long continued ſick-bed; and this perhaps leſs from any ſelfiſh feeling, than from the humane conſideration of the trouble and diſtreſs occaſioned to attending friends, and never was this modeſt and generous wiſh more completely gratified. On the 26th November 1799, and in the 71ſt year of his age, he expired, without any convulſion, ſhock, or ſtupor, to announce or retard the approach of death. Being at table with his uſual fare, ſome bread, a few prunes, and a meaſured quantity of milk, diluted with water, and having the cup in his hand when the laſt ſtroke of the pulſe was to be given, he had ſet it down on his knees which were joined together, and kept it ſteady with his hand, in the manner of a perſon perfectly at eaſe, and in this attitude expired, without ſpilling a drop, and without a writhe in his countenance; as if an experiment had been required, to ſhew to his friends the facility with which he departed. His ſervant opened the door to tell him that ſome one had left his name, but getting no anſwer, ſtepped about half way towards him, and ſeeing him ſitting in that eaſy poſture, ſupporting his baſon of milk with one hand, he thought that he had dropped aſleep which he had ſometimes ſeen happen after his meals. He went back and ſhut the door, but before he got down ſtairs, ſome anxiety that he could not account for, made him return and look again at his maſter. Even then, he was ſatisfied, after coming pretty near him, and turned to go away, but again returned, and coming quite cloſe to him, he found him without life.

(Preface to Black's Lectures, by Dr Robiſon.)

For the Scots Magazine.

ON THE CHORUS OF THE GREEK TRAGEDY.

GREAT events often ariſe from ſmall cauſes. Many of the moſt uſeful diſcoveries in the arts and ſciences have been made by chance, and many of the moſt antient and important inſtitutions have had an obſcure, doubtful, or inſignificant origin. The firſt Epic Poets were only ſtrolling bards; and tragedy, which has been a favourite entertainment in every age of poliſhed ſociety, originated in a ſong which was ſung at the feſtivals of Bacchus, in praiſe of that imaginary deity.

The ſubjects from which they took occaſion to celebrate the honours of the god of the vine were ſoon exhauſted. When the repetition of the ſame ſentiments and language, ceaſed to pleaſe, the poets, in order to diverſify the entertainment, introduced the Epiſode which at firſt was no more than an unadorned ſtory, told by a ſingle ſpeaker in the interval between two ſongs of the chorus. In the progreſs of improvement, a dialogue betwixt two or more perſons, was adopted; and the ſimple ſtory aſſumed al the majeſty of a regular tragedy, as diverſified by intrigue, character, and manners. The chorus which in early times had conſtituted the whole of the entertainment,

ment, now formed a ſubordinate part of the play. Although ſubordinate it was, however, by the antient dramatiſts regarded as eſſential to the nature of tragedy, and regulated by laws of its own.

In the remainder of this paper, we ſhall firſt give a ſhort view of the form of the Greek Chorus, and then make a few obſervations on the principal uſes which it was intended to ſerve.

The Greek tragedy comprehended three diviſions. The prologue which began the piece, and ended with the firſt interlude; the epiſode which extended from the firſt to the laſt interlude; and the epode which contained the cloſe of the whole. In the firſt, the ſubject was announced, and the intrigue commenced in the ſecond, the action was developed, and in the third, the plot completely unravelled. The chorus generally entered in the firſt. However, as there was no preciſe rule for this, it ſometimes did not make its appearance till later. In this the poet was always left to the guidance of his own underſtanding. It was neceſſary only, that its entrance ſhould be required by the nature of the action; and when once brought on, it continued till the final cataſtrophe, or if ever it left the ſtage, it was for ſome urgent reaſon, and only for a ſhort time.

After the Greek Tragedy had aſſumed a regular form, the number that compoſed the chorus, was reſtricted to fifteen. A greater number, it was ſuppoſed, would have crowded the ſtage, a ſmaller would not have given a proper degree of ſplendor and importance to the piece. The chorus conſiſted as occaſion required, either of men or women, prieſts or ſoldiers, citizens or ſlaves. They were repreſented by a leader whom they named the Coryphæus. When it was the turn of the chorus to perform the part of a *Dramatis Perſonæ*, their leader ſpoke in their name, but in the interludes between the different acts the whole chorus united together in hymns in praiſe of the virtues of the principal characters, or in ſongs ſuited to the ſubject, perſuading to ſound morals and the reverence of their deities. Sometimes they divided into two parts, the one ſung the ſtrophe, the other the antiſtrophe. The former moved from the right to the left ſide of the ſtage, in ſteps regulated to the cadence of the ſong; the latter marched from the left to the right, repeating the ſame melody to different words; meeting afterwards in the midle of the ſtage, they united, and turning towards the audience, ſung a new air called the Epode.

Such was the external appearance which the chorus preſented. We ſhall now make a few remarks on the uſes which it ſerved.

One of the principal of theſe, was to preſerve veriſimilitude.

Tragedy is the poetical repreſentation of ſome calamitous event, which has either actually taken place, or which may be eaſily ſuppoſed to have occurred; and in which, the poet, by the delineation of ſuch characters and incidents, as are frequently obſerved in real life, endeavours to convey pleaſure and inſtruction. In order to obtain theſe ends, much muſt depend on the taſte and judgement of the poet. It is obvious, however, that in tragedy, as in every other imitative art, the more numerous and ſtriking the points of reſemblance betwixt the copy and the original, the more conſpicuous are the talents of the artiſt, and the greater the ſatisfaction of the ſpectator. The Greek tragedians were ſenſible of this truth, and it was by this principle that they were directed both in the choice of their ſubject, and in the conduct of their plot.

In the free and poliſhed ſtates of Greece, no action was fit for theatrical

trical exhibition, which was not in itſelf of the laſt importance, and rendered additionally intereſting by the elevated ſtation of the ſufferers. Accordingly we find, in moſt of their tragedies that remain, that the intereſt of the piece depends on the misfortunes and calamities of their celebrated princes, ſtateſmen, and warriors. The dignity of their character, and the nature of their diſtreſs, it was reaſonable to be expected, as it would not fail to affect not only their friends, but alſo the public, would attract a number to aſſiſt them with their ſervice and advice, or to ſympathiſe with them in their ſorrows.—Of theſe diſintereſted and ready friends, who had no other ſhare in the main action, than what their affection for the principal agents led them voluntarily to take, the chorus were the repreſentatives.

The love of the ancients for the appearance of reality in their theatrical exhibitions is well known. It was ſo great that they would not tolerate the leaſt violation of the three dramatic unities. The play of Carcinus the poet, was hiſſed off the ſtage, ſolely, becauſe he had made one of the *dramatis perſonæ* go out of a temple in the preſence of his audience, without being ſeen by them.* The ancients thought, and that juſtly, that in things which required the exerciſe of reflection to diſcover the want of truth, any tranſgreſſion of the rigid laws of the drama, was much more excuſeable than in thoſe inſtances, where the leaſt departure from probability was obvious to regular obſervation. How far the moderns are juſtifiable in a contrary practice, I leave it for the critics to determine. The ancients were fond of the appearance of reality, and, from what has been already ſtated, it muſt be evident, that the uſe of the chorus was in a high degree calculated to gratify their deſire. This truth will become ſtill more manifeſt, when it is added, that the ſcene was always laid in the porch of a temple, in the court of a palace, or in ſome other public place, where a number of people might eaſily be ſuppoſed to aſſemble. The publicity of the ſcene, and the crowd of ſpectators, whom the chorus repreſented, gave each other ſuch an appearance of reality as no other arrangement could ever have accompliſhed, and produced ſuch an effect as imagination, indeed, may readily conceive, but which no language can deſcribe. The audience pleaſed to be preſented with ſuch a ſkilful device, inſtead of conſidering themſelves the ſpectators of a play, ſoon permitted themſelves to entertain the belief that they were the witneſſes of the real event, and ſeeing the chorus intereſted in the fate of the perſonages before them, their own hearts opened to the impreſſions of ſorrow, and contracted a fellow feeling with thoſe who were already ſo deeply concerned.

If what tends to preſerve the three dramatic unities, contributes to the beauty of the piece,—if there be any thing ridiculous in ſuppoſing, that by the dropping of a curtain, an audience can be tranſported from a palace to an inn, from a garden to a church-yard, any contrivance that enables the poet to avoid it, is certainly commendable. Such was the ancient chorus. As it was a rule with them, that when the chorus was once brought on the ſtage, it ſhould continue there till the performance was over, it moſt completely ſecured the unity of place; for nothing would have been more abſurd, than for the audience to have imagined, that the ſcene

* Ariſtot. Poetic.

was

was changed while they ſaw the perſons who occupied the ſtage, at the commencement of the play, continuing to occupy it throughout.

But, beſides rendering the piece more natural by preſerving the unity of place, the chorus produced the ſame effect, by making the time of the repreſentation, in a certain manner, the meaſure for the duration of the action. This was a property of the Greek Drama, of which the ancients were juſtly proud. It is a beauty which is rarely found on the modern ſtage. Our five acts appear like ſo many ſhort plays, linked together by a few leading circumſtances, and the identity of the principal characters; though often the relation of the different parts to each other, is no greater than the connection betwixt the ſubject of King Œdipus and Œdipus at Colanus.* But in our tragedies, even when the time of the repreſentation, and the duration of the action are the ſame; the injudicious manner in which the interval betwixt the acts is filled up, deſtroys the grand effect which the impreſſions of the piece, as a whole, muſt otherwiſe have produced. Theſe were conſequences which the chorus effectually prevented. In the abſence of the principal characters they continued to occupy the ſtage, and by their ſongs, in which they gave utterance to the workings of their own hearts, enforced on the audience the impreſſion of what had gone before, and prepared their paſſions for the reception of what was to follow. The attention of the ſpectators was thus rivetted to the objects before them, and the tumult of their ſoul prevented from ſubſiding, till the performance was finiſhed. Beſides, as the ſubject of the choral odes were connected with the progreſs of the piece, the chorus not only united the preceding and following parts of the play, but alſo inſenſibly contributed to forward the development of the plot.

These were the moſt important purpoſes which the chorus ſerved. It was likewiſe uſeful in ſeveral other reſpects, which although of leſs moment than thoſe already noticed, deſerve, however, to be mentioned. Such were the ſplendor and dignity it added to the ſtage. The number which compoſed the chorus, the high rank of the perſons whom they repreſented, and the magnificence of their dreſs made a noble appearance, and tended to communicate to every boſom, that deep concern for the misfortunes of the ſufferers which they themſelves manifeſted.

The numbers alſo in which the choral odes were compoſed, being different from thoſe uſed in the acts, contributed to diverſify the nature of the entertainment, and to add to the beauty of the whole. The dialogue was carried on in iambics, that ſpecies of poetry which approaches neareſt to common diſcourſe. But in the chorus a meaſure more elevated, and at the ſame time more harmonious, was employed. In the dialogue, the poet was obliged to reſtrain his fire, in order to preſerve the appearance of a real converſation; but in the chorus, where a grateful people celebrated the praiſes of their benefactors, implored the protection of Heaven in their behalf, or adored the power and providence of their deities, he was at liberty to indulge the enthuſiaſm of his genius; and if in the one he had ſpoken the language of princes and heroes, in the other he employed that of the gods.

Hitherto we have conſidered the chorus principally as regulated by

* The titles of two different tragedies of Sophocles.

by the laws of dramatic exhibition. We ſhould not do juſtice to our ſubject, did we omit to mention its tendency to promote virtue.

In the judgement of Horace, the expreſs uſe of the chorus was to ſupport the cauſe of temperance, friendſhip, and juſtice.*

The real propoſed object of all tragedy, is to refine the virtuous and ſympathetic principles of our nature, and thereby to ſtrengthen the ties of morality. This is a taſk of no ſmall difficulty, and requires much delicacy and addreſs. For while the poet aims at inſtruction, the laws of the drama require that every thing ſhould be done naturally. In this reſpect, the laws that regulate the modern ſtage, are truly not rigid. The poet is allowed to introduce into the dialogue, or throw into a ſoliloquy, whatever obſervations are neceſſary to be made, on the objects that are paſſing in review; cuſtom has ſanctioned this practice, or otherwiſe it would be enough to expoſe its abſurdity, to aſk what man, whoſe mind is agitated by paſſion, and kept in ſuſpence by the dependence of that event, which is to form the cataſtrophe of the play, as likely to moraliſe on his ſituation, with the recollection of a philoſopher? Or who in his right ſenſes will talk to himſelf, even upon the moſt intereſting ſubject? The Greek poets were enabled, without having recourſe to theſe ridiculous expedients, to make tragedy a ſchool of virtue. They could introduce into the chorus ſuch reflections as were juſtly excluded from the dialogue. Accordingly, in the interval between the acts, they took occaſion, by means of the chorus, to inſtil into the minds of the audience, while agitated by ſympathy for the ſufferers, and anxiety for their fate, leſſons of wiſdom and morality. Many of the choral odes are ſtill admired as the moſt ſublime productions of human genius. They at leaſt contain the moſt judicious obſervations on the viciſſitudes of human affairs, and on the conduct of providence, that uninſpired philoſophy can produce. If, at this diſtance of time, they have ſuch power to pleaſe on the bare peruſal, what muſt have been their effect when exhibited on the ancient ſtage, accompanied with all the charms which the Grecian muſic and dancing could confer! It is difficult to conceive the high degree of excellence, at which the art of acting had arrived among the ancients. Our ideas of it, however, muſt riſe high when told that at the appearance of the Eumenides in the chorus of the Electra of Eſchylus, the alarm was ſo great, that the repreſentation was interrupted, the women brought forth their untimely birth, and numbers of the children died of fright. If ſuch was their power in exciting terror, we may readily believe, that they were not leſs ſucceſsful in raiſing the other paſſions, and that therefore when the chorus ſung the praiſes of virtue, the effect muſt not have been merely pleaſing, but highly beneficial.

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* Ille bonis faveatque, et concilietur amicis,
Et regat iratos, et amet peccare timentes:
Ille dapes laudet menſæ brevis; ille ſalubrem
Juſtitiam, legeſque, et apertis otia portis:
Ille legat commiſſa; Deosque precetur et oret,
Ut redeat miſeris, abeat fortuna ſuperbis.

Ars. Poet. 201.

Such then were the principal uſes of the chorus That they were valuable, no one will deny; while it is equally obvious, that the chorus muſt have been attended with ſeveral inconveniences. In particular it fettered the poet too much in the choice of his ſubject; to ſuit the chorus it could only be of a public nature, and every circumſtance connected with it, of ſuch a kind as to have paſſed in the preſence of ſeveral witneſſes.

Its excellencies, however, certainly counterbalanced its defects, and its place is but ill ſupplied on the modern ſtage.

The Engliſh reader who would wiſh to ſee a ſpecimen of the ancient chorus, may peruſe the Elfrida, and Caractacus of Maſon.

W. H.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON FRIENDSHIP.

Friendſhip! myſterious cement of the ſoul,
Sweetner of Life, and ſolder of Society,
I owe thee much.

Blair's Grave.

SINCE ſocial life has facilitated the means by which the vicious and bad embitter the lives of their fellow-beings, it is pleaſing to reflect, that it affords an equal opportunity to the well diſpoſed to encourage thoſe affections by which the life of man is rendered ſo much more happy and comfortable, and by which a great many of thoſe evils inſeparable from our exiſtence are diſſipated or leſſened.

Perhaps there has been nothing ſince the earlieſt formation of ſociety which has more contributed to leſſen the burdens of human life, than that habit of the mind which participates in the ſufferings and enjoyments of others, and endeavours by admonition and congratulation to deprive ſorrow of its ſting, or give a higher reliſh to pleaſure. Since none of the feelings of a generous mind are ſilent, or of a ſelfiſh nature, the forming a connection in which may be confided the ſentiments that time and circumſtance give birth to, is not only deſireable, but highly neceſſary; and to a man without a friend the world offers a blank and cheerleſs proſpect, where every view is diſtorted by miſanthropy or diſcoloured by malignity.

Social life has long acknowledged for its bond a ſtrict conformity to moral and political codes, by which the vicious are reſtrained, and a due balance maintained through the various departments of a complex conſtitution. It is likewiſe agreed to, that if ſomething be due to general happineſs, ſomething is alſo due to individual convenience, in which obligations the private feelings have all been conſulted; and the man muſt be overcome with vice, or rendered

dered callous by indifference, who will not confeſs the neceſſity of our ſeveral moral duties to our Maker, our neighbour, or ourſelves. But all theſe may be fulfilled in ſome degree, even ſtrictly complied with, and the ties of nature be neglected, and friendſhip, which may be conſidered only a collateral dependence, never had in view at all. Thus the ſelfiſh philoſopher, and what is called the *general philanthropiſt*, may, though they comply with every duty enjoined by morality, check the indulgence of affections which, tho' they are allowed to be the dictates of nature, are deadened by apathy, or at leaſt ſtifled in the human breaſt.

But ſince all agree that this is a vale of tears, and nothing has been found to have ſuch effect in the removal of grief as the growth and culture of private or individual affections, friendſhip will no doubt be long held in eſtimation, and aſſiduouſly courted as the means of contributing to the pleaſures and comforts of life, and diſſipating the gloom with which our proſpects are ſometimes overſhadowed.

It may be conſidered as remarkable, that thoſe friendſhips which have been moſt durable have almoſt, without exception, been formed in early youth, when the breaſt may be ſaid to be under the dominion of paſſion rather than of reaſon, and when every thing is viewed through a falſe medium. This may ſeem paradoxical, that a paſſion requiring congeniality of ſentiment and diſpoſition, ſimilarity of habits and purſuits, ſhould be formed and cemented when the breaſt is without the controul of prudence, or without the ſuggeſtion of experience. But it may be accounted for; the coldneſs and frigidity of age are every way averſe to forming connections but where intereſt is in view; the caution and diſtruſtfulneſs of mature years are every way incompatible with an open, candid, and ingenuous paſſion, which has nothing profitable for its end, and which is not likely to bring any pecuniary benefit to the parties. What may alſo greatly endear early connections, and render them valuable and precious in this life, is the power that they give us of recalling the ſcenes of youth, of offering to recollection a lively picture of events long paſſed over, and joys which the mutability of human life rendered only tranſitory; when we conſider that a great part of our pleaſure and pain ariſes from reflection on the paſt, we will ſeize with pleaſure any thing that will aſſiſt us in the recognition of paſt events, and mingling with pleaſure among thoſe whoſe preſence has the quality of making time and place ſubſervient to *them*.

Though we may have known inſtances of connections rendered ſtable though formed with precipitancy, it becomes us not to make engagements without conſideration. To act with caution is a proof of good ſenſe; and the failures and miſcarriages of many great men ought to remind us of the neceſſity of deliberating, and ſuffering firſt impreſſions to ſubſide, before we determine on any thing which is thought to be of conſequence. If congeniality of diſpoſition and a due regard for the amiableneſs of virtue be previouſly conſidered, a man may congratulate himſelf on ſo great an acceſſion to his happineſs as that which will probably ariſe from a connection thus natural and deſireable; for what does a ſelfiſh and inſulated being preſent to the mind, but a leſſon how eaſily human nature may be diſhonoured as well as improved by our own endeavours, and how eaſily the world may be thought not worth enjoying by a wrong direction of thoſe powers given for our mutual comfort and

benefit: and conſidering that friendſhip offers a man the means of ſweetening his paſſage through life, and extenuating thoſe evils to which our nature renders us liable, it ought to occupy a part of every man's life to form and cultivate thoſe connections which, devoid of every thing ſelf-intereſted and unworthy, have long been conſidered as the ſweetners of life and the ſolder of ſociety.

ATTICUS.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON THE DISADVANTAGES OF A CLASSICAL EDUCATION.

THE taſk of attempting to oppoſe any ſyſtem which has been long eſtabliſhed is arduous and difficult; the feeble voice of a ſingle individual who ſpeaks the language of reaſon, and who by calm and diſpaſſionate argument, endeavours to controvert ſuch a ſyſtem, is loſt in the univerſal clamour of its adherents; and he himſelf is ſtigmatized as a viſionary ſchemer, an innovator, who wiſhes to appear wiſer than thoſe around him. Some, however, inſtead of condemning him for his ſeeming temerity in attacking favourite ſyſtems, will at leaſt give him a patient hearing. Before they rank themſelves among the oppoſers of his doctrine, however ſtrange it may appear, they will examine the arguments advanced in its favour. If theſe arguments appear inadequate to the purpoſe for which they were advanced, they will of courſe reject them, and their attachment to the old ſyſtem will be ſtrengthened. If, however, the arguments advanced by the reformer be concluſive, and if he make it appear, that the abolition of the cuſtom or ſyſtem in queſtion, would conduce to the welfare of ſociety, theſe men will be the firſt to adopt his views, and to favour his opinions.

To men ſuch as theſe, this eſſay is addreſſed. From them, when I declare my intentions to be for the good of ſociety, I have nothing to fear. To them, therefore, I affirm, *that the preſent ſyſtem of education is highly improper, and that it cannot be radically reformed, till the cuſtom of teaching the ancient languages be done away.*

THE Greek and Latin languages are at preſent taught univerſally, and this cuſtom has been ſanctioned by the example of many ſucceſſive ages. The beauties of the works written in theſe languages, are univerſally admired. Theſe works are the models from which many of the graces of modern compoſition are derived. The enthuſiaſtic admirers of theſe authors will exclaim, that none but a Goth, a Vandal, a being void of taſte or feeling, could make ſuch a barbarous propoſal as to conſign them to oblivion. I know, and I admire the beauties of the claſſic authors, and regret that to accord with my ideas, theſe beauties muſt be *partially* loſt to the world. I allow

allow alſo, that the ſtudy of the ancient languages has been attended with uſe to ſociety, more ſolid than mere beauty. But the queſtion is, whether do the uſes or the diſadvantages of ſtudying Greek and Latin preponderate? If the evils attending theſe ſtudies outweigh their good effects, even by a ſingle grain, it is evident that they ſhould be aboliſhed.

The queſtion with regard to the uſes or diſavantages of a claſſical education, from its great importance, has been frequently treated. In a late work* we find this topic diſcuſſed at ſome length. The deciſion is given *in favour* of claſſical learning. The author, however, has touched but ſlightly on the *diſadvantages*, while he has exerted himſelf in inculcating its *good effects*. In the preſent paper, my intention is to give a view of this writer's arguments in favour of learning the ancient languages, to attempt a reply to theſe arguments, and to ſet the *diſadvantages* attending this ſyſtem of education in a ſtronger light.

In order to do juſtice to the arguments advanced by the writer in queſtion, it will be neceſſary to ſtate them in his own words, or nearly ſo.—It is hardly poſſible to abridge them, and at the ſame time to preſerve their force. This, it is hoped, will be an excuſe for the great length to which this paper will be extended.

The author in the firſt place, reaſons as follows. "The cultivation of claſſical learning, has a favourable influence on the living languages. In ſtudying the dead languages we find it neceſſary to pay more attention to the principles of grammar, than in ſtudying our mother tongue. We learn our native language without attending much to its analogy and ſtructure. The general maſs of people who ſpeak Engliſh, are little ſkilled in the inflexion of its nouns and verbs, or able to diſtinguiſh between adverbs and conjunctions. Their only aim is to make themſelves underſtood, and they reject not a phraſe that occurs to them, becauſe it is barbarous and ungrammatical. As they grew up they learned to ſpeak from their mothers, their nurſes, and others about them; they were ſoon able to make known their wants, their wiſhes, and their obſervations, in words. If theſe people find occaſion to expreſs themſelves in writing, they are as incorrect as in ſpeaking, ſuch people as theſe, can never refine any language, or reduce it to a regular analogy, neither can they be expected to be the guardians of the purity and regularity of their native tongue, if it ſhould before have attained a high degree of perfection. But they who in learning a language different from their native tongue, have found it neceſſary to pay particular attention to the principles of grammar, afterwards apply the knowledge of grammar which they have thus acquired in uſing their mother tongue; and by that means became better acquainted with its ſtructure, and learn to write and ſpeak it with more correctneſs and propriety. Beſides, the languages of Greece and Rome are ſo highly diſtinguiſhed for their copiouſneſs, their regular analogy, and for various other excellencies, that the ſtudy of them has a natural tendency to improve modern languages. In the 15th century, when claſſical learning began to be cultivated, the languages of Europe were poor and barbarous. Knowledge could not be communicated, or buſineſs tranſacted, without the aid of Latin. Claſſical learn-

* Encyc. Brit. art. Education.

ing ſoon began to be ſtudied with great avidity. This eagerneſs was productive of many happy effects. It produced a wonderful change on the form of the living languages. Theſe ſoon became more copious and regular, and many of them have conſequently attained ſuch perfection, that the poet, the hiſtorian, and the philoſopher, can clothe their thoughts in them to the greateſt advantage. Could we derive no new advantage from the ſtudy of the ancient languages, yet would they be worthy of our care, as having contributed ſo much to raiſe the modern languages to their preſent improved ſtate. But they can alſo conduce to the preſervation and ſupport of thoſe noble ſtructures that have been reared by their aſſiſtance. From many cauſes, even the nobleſt languages have a tendency to be debaſed and corrupted: but the claſſical works in the ancient languages might prevent ours from experiencing ſuch a decline. He who knows and admires the excellencies of thoſe languages will be the firm enemy of barbariſm, affectation, and negligence, whenever they attempt to debaſe his mother tongue. When the poliſhed languages of antiquity ceaſe to be ſtudied among us, our native tongue will then loſe its purity, regularity, and other excellencies, and gradually decline, till it be no longer known for the language of Pope and of Addiſon; and it is an argument in favour of claſſical learning, that it has contributed ſo much to the improvement of the living languages, and is almoſt the only means that can prevent them from being corrupted and debaſed."

If we analyſe this reaſoning, and diveſt the arguments of their embelliſhments, we ſhall find them to be—1. That owing to the ungrammatical manner in which we learn our own language, we could not be able to write or ſpeak it with propriety, did we not ſtudy the grammar of a dead language, and then apply the principles of this grammar to our own: 2. That the languages of Greece and Rome having been cultivated in the dark ages, when knowledge could not be communicated, or buſineſs tranſacted, without their help, conduced greatly to the improvement of the modern languages; and therefore we ſhould continue to uſe them from gratitude for their paſt ſervices, even ſuppoſing them to be of no further uſe to the world. 3. But that they are ſtill of uſe, for if it were not for them, our language would return to its original barbariſm.

The author is ſenſible, that we are taught our own language in a very erroneous manner; and ſeems to think, that a principal uſe of the dead languages is to compenſate for the ungrammatical manner in which we acquire our own. We learn Engliſh without attending to its analogy or ſtructure; and therefore we muſt learn ſome other language in a ſyſtematic manner, that we may apply the principles of grammar thus acquired to our mother tongue. The author allows that our Engliſh education is faulty, but he does not enquire into the cauſes of this. Every perſon who has gone through the tedious years of a courſe of Latin and Greek muſt be ſenſible, that during that time there is little leiſure for any other branch of education. All he can do is, to learn to *read* Engliſh; the principles of its grammar are not attended to, but they make up for this as well as they can, by applying to it the principles of Latin grammar. Were it not for the time occupied by Latin, ſurely our youth could be taught their own tongue in a regular manner without having recourſe to the medium of any other. The Engliſh language can doubtleſs be eaſily taught in that way. Its analogies

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are not perhaps ſo ſtrict, and the exceptions to the general rules are more numerous than in the Latin. Still, however, there is not the ſmalleſt doubt, but that a young man may be made a correct, a grammatical, and even an elegant Engliſh ſcholar, capable of diſcriminating and of enjoying the beauties of our beſt authors, before he could be made to tranſlate the moſt ſimple ſchool-book in Latin. It appears then, that the ſtudy of Latin which is conſidered as the *remedy* for the defects of our Engliſh education, is in fact the very *cauſe* of theſe defects; and that if the cauſe were taken away, the remedy would be no longer neceſſary.

The author is of opinion, that owing to the great ſervice which the dead languages have been of to the modern tongues, we ſhould continue to cultivate them from motives of gratitude. We are, I allow, very much indebted to the languages of antiquity for the very high rank which our language holds, but my ideas of gratitude are not ſo high, as to make me think it neceſſary to waſte the moſt precious years of our youth in teſtifying it. "But," it is ſaid, "the dead languages conduce to the ſupport of thoſe noble ſtructures that have been reared by their aſſiſtance." To this poſition I cannot aſſent. I do not ſee why, under a proper ſyſtem of education, our own language cannot ſupport itſelf, without the aid of Greek and Latin. A man grounded in Engliſh literature, who has been taught the language grammatically, who has ſtudied thoſe models of compoſition, the works of Addiſon, of Pope, of Milton, and of Thomſon, will be as firm an enemy to barbariſm, affectation, and negligence, in ſhort, to whatever may have a tendency to corrupt his native language, as if he had devoted his whole life to the ſtudy of the claſſics. In the infancy of our language, when no models for elegant compoſition were to be found but in the languages of Greece and Rome, the neceſſity of theſe languages was not to be diſputed; but now that we have rivalled, I may almoſt ſay ſurpaſſed them, in every branch of literature, where is the neceſſity of having recourſe to theſe models?

But this is not all; the Greek and Latin languages are now not only of no farther uſe in ſupporting the Engliſh, but they are an obſtacle to its further improvement. That the Engliſh language has received as much improvement as theſe languages can give it, is evident when we conſider that it has made no advances for the laſt hundred years, as it was as near perfection in the days of Addiſon, as it is at the preſent time. The Engliſh language, is ſtill in a very imperfect ſtate; it is full of irregularities both in orthography and in grammar. Theſe irregularities are conſequences of our attention to the ancient languages, and of neglect of our own. We find that thoſe nations who made their own languages their principal ſtudy, brought them to the greateſt degree of perfection. Among the Greeks, the ſtudy of foreign languages made a very ſmall part of the ſyſtem of education; and accordingly we find that their own language on which they beſtowed their chief attention, is the moſt regular and highly poliſhed of all others. The Romans, by the aſſiſtance of the Greek, brought their language from a rude ſtate to a very great degree of perfection. The Latin, however, never came up to the Greek in regularity and elegance. The cauſe of this, ſeems to have been, that the Romans began to pay attention to Greek literature, to the neglect of that of their own country. In the Auguſtan age the Latin had attained its higheſt purity. From that time,

time, the rage for Grecian learning encreaſed, and from that time, the Latin language began to decline. In the writers ſubſequent to the Auguſtan age, we find a continual affectation of Greek idioms and Greek expreſſions. Moſt Roman writers at that time compoſed with nearly the ſame facility in Greek as in Latin; but the conſequence was, that their Latin was no longer the Latin of former days. On the ſame principle we may affirm, that owing to the great attention which has been paid to the Greek and Latin, our language has never attained the regularity of either. Now it appears to me evident, that if we had not been obliged to neglect our mother tongue, from our attention to the dead languages, all or moſt of its irregularities would have been taken notice of and corrected. From the immoderate time ſpent by our youth in the ſtudy of Latin and Greek, their vernacular education is ſhamefully neglected; but if they were allowed to beſtow that attention on their own, which they do on theſe languages, and to acquire it in the ſame ſyſtematic manner, they would then ſee the wants of a mere regular analogy. The irregularities of the Engliſh language would be then corrected, its differences would be ſupplied, and it would arrive at a degree of excellence which it has never yet attained. So far from being a ſupport, then, it would appear that the general cultivation of the Greek and Latin, retards the improvement of the Engliſh language.

(To be continued.)

ATTACHMENT BETWEEN A CAT AND A BIRD.

To the Editor of the Scots Magazine.

Sir,

Your anecdote of the cat and ſparrow page 315, brings to my remembrance, a fact of a ſimilar nature which took place at Leith ſome years ago. A bird, but whether it was a ſparrow or linnet I have forgotten, and a kitten, became quite familiar. The attachment which ſeemed mutual, continued till the kitten was a full grown cat. One day a ſtranger cat entered the apartment where the friends were, who, dreading the intentions of the intruder, were inſtantly alarmed. The bird's friend took the bird in its mouth, ſprung, by a cheſt of drawers, to the top of a bed, and their remained till the ſtranger cat was driven out of the room. She then dropped the bird from her mouth which was no way hurt.

W. I.

EXTRACTS

FROM THE JOURNAL OF A TOUR THROUGH FRANCE AND PART OF ITALY IN THE COURSE OF LAST WINTER AND SPRING.

LETTER VII.

MARSEILLES, { 1. *Frimaire*, X. / 22*d November* 1801.

My Dear HENRY,

MY laſt letter to you was written at Lyons, the ſecond city in France in point of population, and diſtinguiſhed not merely on account of its manufactures, but alſo by the figure which it has made in hiſtory. At this moment, it preſents an awfully intereſting ſpectacle to the traveller, who encounters, in every ſtreet, ſome object to remind him of the horrid ſcenes which a few ſhort years ago were acted within its walls. The hopes of peace, however, have begun to cheer the drooping ſpirits of the inhabitants, and to revive their hopes of comfort. They are buſily occupied in hiding the blackened beams which had been charred by the flames of revolutionary frenzy, and in rearing the houſes which had been thrown to the ground. Their rejoicings for the peace have been truly ſincere; for war, both at home and abroad, had reduced them to the utmoſt extremity of deſpair. Through the medium of the prefect, Bonaparte has promiſed to make the inhabitants forget their former calamities. The city has dropped the name of *Ville Affranchie*, which had been impoſed upon it by the Directory, as a puniſhment for its obſtinacy, and is now known by Government under its ancient appellation.

You muſt have heard of the famous *Hotel de Ville*. It has been completely diſmantled by the fanaticiſm of the Jacobin faction, but the *Facade* is ſtill ſuperb, and we can gueſs at what it has been, as we would judge of a ſtatue from the foot which remains on its pedeſtal. The veſtibule is ornamented with large emblematic ſtatues in marble, of the city with her two rivers, the majeſtic Rhone, and the gentle Saone. One of the apartments ſtill contains ſome valuable Roman antiquities found near the place; in particular, an altar and table of bronze, on which is engraven, the ſpeech of Claudius to obtain from the Roman ſenate the privilege of citizens to the Lyoneſe. The temporary ſtage erected by the Jacobins after the capture of the town for the purpoſe of condemning thoſe who were ſuſpected of royaliſm, is ſtill in the place where it was put up. The man who ſhews the building was condemned at this ſummary tribunal, and was only ſaved from inſtant death, as he aſſured me, by meeting a republican

lican general whom he knew. He is a keen royaliſt. The chambers appropriated to the *Mairie*, the *Preſecture*, and the *Commercial-court*, are not yet put into repair. Very few of the old pictures remain, and thoſe which have eſcaped, owe their good fortune to the height at which they had been hung.*

In a library which belonged to a literary ſociety in this city, I ſaw a buſt of Voltaire, in black marble, with a golden flame iſſuing from his breaſt, and another from his head! The *Hotel Dieu* is a very large but not an elegant hoſpital. I found the wards clean, and free from ſmell, but the patients were ill arranged. Jaundice was lying beſide Typhus. One of the phyſicians gives clinical lectures, and is followed in his rounds by 200 pupils. To the honour of my *alma mater* be it mentioned, that *ſhe* ſet the example of this mode of imparting medical ſkill. I went to one of the theatres, but it was ſo crowded, that I could hardly get my noſe in. It is handſomer than any that I had ſeen at Paris, and the company were better dreſſed. Like thoſe of Paris, the ſtreets of Lyons are extremely narrow and dirty. The banks of the Saone are uncommonly beautiful and romantic. On the 17th, we hired a boat to carry us down to Avignon, as we underſtood the roads continued almoſt impaſſable. Half a mile below the town we dropped into the Rhone, whoſe current is much more rapid, and whoſe general character is much bolder than that of his placid ſiſter Saone. All there was in motion. Boats and barges without number glided paſt in all directions, ſome indolently reſigned to the current, ſome ſtruggling hard againſt the ſtream, by the aid of oars, horſes, and oxen. I was aſtoniſhed at the dexterity with which the drivers of the animals employed in this ſervice maintained their poſt, when the poor creatures came to a creek or river which it was neceſſary for them to ſwim acroſs. Though the cattle were almoſt covered with water, their guides contrived to get over quite dry, by ſtanding upon the necks of theſe well trained animals. We were amuſed by the flying bridges, which are a happy contrivance, and much uſed on the Rhone.* Floating mills are alſo much in uſe over the whole extent of this river. The ſcenery, eſpecially about Vienne, ſtruck me as being uncommonly beautiful. The mountains there are high, ſmooth, and finely rounded, clothed to the top with vines or coppice-wood. At Valence, they aſſume a rugged character, and from that place to Port St Eſprit, the beautiful gradually yields to the ſublime. Feudal towers reared on the precipitous projections of the moſt inacceſſible rocks, add not a little to the pictureſque grandeur of this wild and romantic ſcenery. As we advance, the Rhone encreaſes in rapidity, and as the bottom is apt to ſhift, fatal accidents frequently occur to thoſe temporary boats which are nailed together, merely for the voyage; for at Avignon, they are broken up for other uſes, and the ſailors return on foot. Though the diſtance from Lyons to that town is 100 poſt leagues, yet ſuch is the rapidity of the current, that the voyage is ſometimes performed in 24 hours. We

* Before the arrival of the Chief Conſul to meet the *Conſulta* of the Ciſalpine republic, about ſix weeks after this, the *Hotel de Ville* was repaired, and nearly reſtored to its former magnificence.

* For a deſcription of theſe, ſee Encyclop. Brit. Art. Bridge.

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took it more leiſurely, and were two nights on ſhore by the way. On the evening of our firſt day's ſailing, we witneſſed a ſingular combination of the ſublime and beautiful. Night advanced, and the ſky was obſcured by black clouds, which gradually opening to the left, diſplayed the moon in ſerene majeſty, ſurrounded by a fine blue ſky; but gathering to the right, they burſt in repeated and frequent flaſhes of lightning, followed by long peals of bellowing thunder. The contraſt betwixt the mild light of the moon which gilded the tremulous wave, and the tranſient fiery glare which illuminated the river at intervals on the other hand, diſpelling the ſhadows of moonſhine, was more ſtriking than any phenomenon of the kind which I had ever obſerved before. Over the fertile plains of Dauphiny reigned peace and ſerenity, over the rough mountains of the Lyonnais was exhibited an emblem of war. The paſſage under the bridge of *St Eſprit* is uſually repreſented as very dangerous, but we did not find it at all formidable. The current under the arches is no doubt rapid, but I ſaw neither waves nor whirlpools to excite the ſmalleſt fear, and we darted through without ſwerving from our courſe. I was even able to ſtand upright upon the prow of the boat till we were fairly paſt. In this bridge, I counted 19 arches, but the boatmen aſſured us that there are 36. It extends a long way beyond the banks of the river, that people may paſs in the time of a flood. On our arrival at Avignon, our barge was inſtantly ſurrounded by a race of ſavages who ſeized upupon the carriage, jabbering a language which to me was entirely new. It was *patois*, the language of the Mediterranean coaſt. It was in vain to addreſs them in French; they did not underſtand it. They dragged the chaiſe to the inn and we followed, nothing loath.

On the whole we had a pleaſant voyage down the Rhone. At one place alone were we in danger, and that was from a ſudden guſt of wind which caught the body of the chaiſe and had almoſt upſet us, and we now ſee by the papers, that ſome merchants who left Lyons after us were actually loſt on the ſame river. We ſat in the carriage: an awning was erected for the ſervants, who were furniſhed with a pan of charcoal in which they and the ſailors kept roaſting cheſnuts all the way. This it ſeems is the amuſement appropriated to the place. For the uſe of our boat, which was as rude and crazy as can well be imagined, we paid 13 Louis d'ors, beſides I don't know how much wine to the boatmen; but it was a groſs impoſition. Five Louis is the uſual hire. In the regular packet boat, where we ſhould have been quite as well accommodated, our fare would have been 12½ franks a-head – about half-a-guinea. But we were ſtrangers, and *my lords Anglois*. On the way we met large fleets of boats attached to each other, and dragged by from a dozen to 20 or even 30 horſes and oxen in company. They were of courſe obliged to keep as cloſe to the banks, and as much out of the current, as poſſible. But a very large proportion of the veſſels which go down never return to Lyons. They may in fact be conſidered merely as rough deals nailed together in the form of boats, that they may float the better.

I CAN give you little new information with regard to Avignon. Every traveller has ſomething to ſay of Laura and Petrarch, and the delightful retreat of Vaucluſe. I have therefore no new anecdotes, no new deſcriptions to preſent to you. The palace of the Popes is now in ruins. It has been convert-

ed into barracks for the French ſoldiery, who have defiled its walls with profane and impious inſcriptions Some of the apartments are uſed as a priſon, of which, by all accounts, there is much need here; for Avignon having been under a different government from the ſurrounding country, was a city of refuge to all the blackguards who could eſcape juſtice at home.—Hence, it is ſaid to be a den of thieves and murderers. The pontifical chapel, once a handſome building, is now a filthy warehouſe. The ſtreets exhibit ſymptoms of miſery From the height above the papal palace, you have a fine bird's-eye view of the town and ſurrounding country, bounded by the ragged ſnowy Alps. The Rhone waſhes the walls of Avignon, and takes a beautiful ſweep around it. It contributes much to the wealth of the inhabitants, but ſometimes alſo to the ruin of individuals, as it has very lately ſhewn. Great part of the city was laid under water by its ſudden overflow, and the adjacent plain is ſtill wet with ſtagnant lakes left by the floods. Immenſe damage was done both in the houſes and in the fields. Many of the roads are ſtill impaſſable. But of this you ſhall hear more hereafter, as I have not time by this opportunity to bring you all the way to Marſeilles.

A SURVEY AND REPORT OF THE COASTS AND CENTRAL HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND;

MADE BY THE COMMAND OF THE RIGHT HONOURABLE THE LORDS COMMISSIONERS OF HIS MAJESTY'S TREASURY, IN THE AUTUMN OF 1802.

By Thomas Telford, F. R. S. Civil Engineer, Edinburgh.

MY LORDS,

IN reporting upon the ſurvey I made in Scotland, in obedience to the inſtructions I had the honour of receiving from your Lordſhips, dated the 1ſt of July 1802, I find the buſineſs may be moſt conveniently arranged under the following heads:

I. WHAT regards rendering the intercourſe of the country more perfect, by means of bridges and roads.

II. Aſcertaining various circumſtances relative to the Caledonian canal, eſpecially with regard to the ſupplies of water on the ſummit level, and the beſt communications from this canal to the fiſhing lochs at the back of the Iſle of Skye.

III. the means of promoting the fiſheries on the eaſt and weſt coaſts.

IV. THE cauſes of emigration, and the means of preventing it.

V. IMPROVING the means of communication between Great Britain and the northern parts of Ireland; particularly as to the bridges and roads between Carliſle and Port Patrick, and alſo the harbour of Port Patrick.

UNDER each of thoſe heads are comprehended ſubjects highly deſerving

ſerving the attention of government; the more they are inveſtigated, the more important they will appear, and the public will become more fully convinced, that the general intereſts of the Britiſh empire are extenſively connected with the ſeveral improvements which are mentioned in your Lordſhips' inſtructions.

Of Bridges and Roads.

The obſtacles which at preſent obſtruct the communications in the north of Scotland are numerous and well known, not only to the inhabitants, but to every perſon who has travelled through, or even inquired into the ſtate of, the country.

Previous to the year 1742, the roads were merely the tracks of black cattle and horſes, interſected by numerous rapid ſtreams, which being frequently ſwoln into torrents by heavy rains, rendered them dangerous or impaſſable. The military roads, which were formed about this time, having been laid out with other views than promoting commerce and induſtry, are generally in ſuch directions, and ſo inconveniently ſteep, as to be nearly unfit for the purpoſes of civil life; and in thoſe parts where they are tolerably acceſſible, or where roads have ſince been formed by the inhabitants, the uſe of them is very much circumſcribed from the want of bridges over ſome of the principal rivers.

The general connections of the country may be ſtated as leading from Edinburgh to the north and north weſt counties, by means of one road through the Highlands, and by another along the eaſt coaſt and ſouth ſhore of the Murray Frith to the town of Inverneſs, and from thence through Beauley and Dingwall, to Tain in Roſs-ſhire. From Glaſgow and Greenock, the communications by land are through Argyleſhire, to the weſtern parts of Inverneſs and Roſs-ſhire, and to the ſhores oppoſite the whole of the Hebrides. There is an important communication from Inverneſs weſtward, acroſs the country to Fort Auguſtus and Fort William, and from Fort Auguſtus there are juſt the veſtiges remaining of what was once a military road to Bernera, oppoſite the back of the Iſle of Skye.

In conſidering theſe lines of roads, it appears moſt regular to begin on the borders of the improved country, and near to the ſeats of commerce and induſtry. In proceeding from Edinburgh northwards, by the eaſt coaſt and Moray Frith to Inverneſs, or through the central Highlands to the ſame place, and from thence to Tain on the Dornoch Frith in Roſs-ſhire, we find the communications intercepted, and we learn that accidents frequently happen from the want of a bridge over the river Tay at Dunkeld in Perthſhire; another over the river Spey, at Fochabers, in Banffſhire; a third over the river Beauley, in Inverneſs-ſhire; and a fourth over the river Conon, near Dingwall, in Roſs-ſhire. Theſe rivers are large, and at preſent are all croſſed by means of ferry-boats.

At Dunkeld the river Tay is deep and broad, and there is reaſon to expect the foundations will be expenſive, the bed of the river at and for a great diſtance above and below the town being compoſed of alluvial earth and gravel. The beſt ſituation for a bridge is a little below the lower ferry; at this place there is a ſtraight reach of the river, and in winter the ice is broken by paſſing over a ford nearly oppoſite the mouth of the river Bran. This ſituation will alſo connect with the improved lines of road which are propoſed to be made on each ſide of the river. It is probable that a flat rubble ſtone will be got near the ſlate quarries, which are within a

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ſhort diſtance of the place. Free-ſtone of a durable quality is to be had near Dundee: it may be brought by water carriage to Perth, and from thence by land to Dunkeld.

Under all theſe circumſtances the expenſe would be conſiderable; and, taking into account the uncertainty of the foundations, the amount cannot be ſtated at leſs than 15,000l.

The two ferries which are now at Dunkeld belong to his grace the Duke of Athol; he has authoriſed me to ſtate, that if government will defray one-half the expenſe of a bridge, he will advance the other half; that he will give up his intereſt in the ferries, if in lieu thereof a reaſonable toll be put upon the bridge, in order to liquidate the capital advanced by the duke: after this has been accompliſhed, with a ſmall ſurplus to anſwer the repairs, the bridge ever after to remain free of toll.

This ſeems a very reaſonable and juſt mode of defraying the expenſe: the ſafety and accommodation would be ſo great, that no perſon travelling that road could object to paying the ſame toll for a ſafe and convenient bridge which at preſent is paid for a dangerous and inconvenient ferry-boat, eſpecially when there will be a certain proſpect of having a bridge free of toll in a few years.

This bridge is of the firſt importance to the Central Highlands; it would accommodate a great diſtrict of that country, and at the ſame time facilitate the communication with the North Highlands.

The river Spey is alſo rapid and deep, being the drain of a great extent of mountainous country, where there is much rain. It is of courſe a very dangerous ferry. This ferry is on the great coaſt road eaſtward from Inverneſs and Fort George, through the towns and cultivated country in Murray and Banff ſhires, from whence it paſſes through Fraſerburgh and Peterhead to Aberdeen.

Another branch of road alſo ſtrikes off at Fochabers, on the Spey, and paſſes by Huntly and Inverury to Aberdeen.

The neceſſity of having a bridge over the Spey at this place became ſo urgent, that his grace the Duke of Gordon began a ſubſcription in the adjacent country in order to raiſe a part of the money neceſſary to defray the expenſe of a bridge; his grace ſet a liberal example, and it has been followed by moſt of the gentlemen in that part of the country. In conſequence of this exertion, a contract has been entered into, and ſome ſteps have been taken towards carrying this uſeful work into execution; but unleſs government will grant an aid equal to one-half the expenſe, the works muſt ſtill be left unfiniſhed, and unfit for the purpoſes intended.

The ſituation fixed upon for this bridge is adjacent to the town and ferry of Fochabers. At this place a rock paſſes quite through the river, at about from eight to ten feet below the ſurface of ordinary low water; and, as far as I could learn, it is the only place, unleſs at a great diſtance up the country, where the rock paſſes quite through the river. On theſe accounts it was judicious to prefer it for the ſituation of the bridge; and it was fortunate this happened preciſely in the line of the preſent road.

As one half of the expenſe will be raiſed by ſubſcription in the neighbourhood, if government will defray the other half, I underſtand it is propoſed that the bridge ſhall be free of toll. The expenſe cannot be ſtated at leſs than 12,000l.

I have made plans and ſections for both thoſe bridges. On account of their being ſo nearly connected with the ſeats of the two before-mentioned

tioned noblemen, I have introduced more decorations than what are abſolutely neceſſary for common road bridges. This extra expenſe will not amount to much; but whatever it is, I propoſe it ſhall be defrayed by thoſe noblemen.

I LAST year produced plans and eſtimates for the bridges over the rivers Beauley and Conon: I have again examined the propoſed ſituations, and perceive that, on account of the uncertainty of the foundations, and the alterations which muſt be made in ſome parts of the beds of the rivers, it will be neceſſary to take the expenſes of each bridge at 5000l. inſtead of 4000l.

THESE two bridges are greatly wanted, in order to facilitate the communications with Roſs-ſhire, Sutherland, and Caithneſs; they are equally ſo for the north-weſt coaſt of the main land, and the northern parts of the Hebrides; they are the roots from which a great number of branches of roads are to proceed, which are neceſſary for the improvement of the country and the extenſion of the fiſheries.

BEFORE entering upon the conſideration of the roads to the north of the line of the Caledonian canal, it is neceſſary to ſpeak of the communications from Glaſgow and Greenock by Argyleſhire to Fort William. From Glaſgow there is already a road, which paſſes through Dumbarton up the weſt ſide of Loch Lomond, by the upper ends of Loch Long and Loch Fyne to Inverary. From Greenock, by croſſing the frith of the Clyde, there is a road which paſſes up the eaſt ſide of Gare Loch and Loch Long, and joins the road to Inverary at the top of Loch Long. From Inverary there is one road which paſſes the upper end of Loch Awe, and another which croſſes that loch by a ferry at Port Sonachan; and theſe roads unite at Bunawe, on the banks of Loch Etive. From Bunawe the road is already made to Oban, and a branch croſſes Loch Etive and paſſes along the ſouth ſide of the Linnhe Loch and Loch Eil to Fort William. Between Bunawe and Fort William there are three ferries, over arms of the ſea, which running many miles into the land, cannot well be avoided: in other reſpects, the communication from Glaſgow and Greenock, thus far, is tolerably good. The Highland Society, in the excellent report to which I ſhall have frequent occaſion to refer, have pointed out a new line of road from the north ſide of the Frith of Clyde, nearly oppoſite to Greenock, to be carried to the Bay of Strachur upon Loch Fyne: this would be a very direct line from Greenock to Inverary, but it would be ſubject to two ferries, and it ſeems doubtful whether this inconvenience would not overbalance the additional diſtance round the upper end of the lochs; at leaſt, as there is already a very good communication by this road, it ſeems moſt prudent to attend to the other more neceſſary portions of road before this is undertaken.

FROM Fort William it will be very adviſeable to improve and extend the road which paſſes along the north ſide of the portion of Loch Eil which turns from Fort William to the weſt, and to carry it from thence acroſs the upper end of Loch Shiel, through Arraſaig to Morer, as deſcribed in the report of the Highland Society. This would open a very direct communication from the Clyde to the fiſhing lochs at the back of Skye, to Skye itſelf, and to the iſlands of Egg, Rum, Muck, Barra, and South Uiſt. This would prove of great importance to the fiſheries on account of facilitating intelligence, which is one of the moſt neceſſary ſteps to promote the ſucceſs of this buſineſs.

In the year 1796, Mr Brown, of Elgin, made a ſurvey and eſtimate of this road from Fort William to Moier, and ſtated the expence at L. 6456; ſince that time I underſtand that about L. 150 has been laid out upon it, ſo that about L. 4000, and perhaps ſomewhat more, is ſtill required to render it perfect.

With regard to the improvement of the roads which lead from Fort William eaſt to Inverneſs, there is one principle which in future ought never to be loſt ſight of, which is, to make the new roads as near to the banks of the rivers and lochs as is practicable at a reaſonable expenſe. If the Caledonian canal is executed, it is more than probable that many improvements will be pointed out in the courſe of carrying on that great work; and it would be imprudent to decide raſhly in a matter which is ſo much connected with this national object.

We now come to conſider the communications of the countries which lie to the north and weſt of the tract of the Caledonian canal. From this valley, which runs from Fort William to Inverneſs, it is of great importance that there ſhould be lines of communication with the Iſle of Skye, and the fiſhing lochs which lie at the back of it; theſe lines of road are not only neceſſary for promoting the fiſheries, but are urgently called for by the ſituation of the interior parts of the country, where there are many fertile vallies which hitherto have remained nearly inacceſſible: it is incalculable the loſs which the public has ſuſtained, and are about to ſuffer, from the want of roads in this country.

From the bridges of Beauley and Conon, lines of road, from the ſame important cauſes, are wanted in ſeveral directions to the weſt coaſt, and through the whole of the counties of Roſs-ſhire, Sutherland, and Caithneſs. The outlines of theſe roads are well deſcribed in the report of the Highland Society; and although there is a diverſity of opinion as to the comparative importance of ſome of them, as well as of thoſe to Skye, yet it is evident that they are all neceſſary for the welfare of the country.

The empire at large being deeply intereſted in theſe improvements, as it regards promoting the fiſheries and increaſing the revenue and population of the kingdom, juſtifies government in granting aid towards making roads and bridges in a country which muſt otherwiſe remain, perhaps for ages to come, thus imperfectly connected. Yet as the land owners in thoſe extenſive diſtricts through which the roads would paſs, and indeed the whole of the adjoining diſtricts of country, would enjoy improved cultiv tion and paſturage, increaſed incomes, and all the bleſſings which are to be derived from a facility of intercourſe, it is certainly juſt that they ſhould contribute a ſhare with government in the expence of acquiring thoſe advantages. They might be enabled to do this without inconvenience to the preſent poſſeſſors, by being empowered by an act of parliament to ſell land, or borrow money upon the land, to the amount of their proportion of the expence to be incurred by the roads and bridges. This is reaſonable, becauſe the money ſo raiſed would be applied to improve the remainder of the entailed eſtate which would be enhanced in value though ſomewhat diminiſhed in extent.

(To be continued.)

LITERARY EXTRACTS AND NOTICES.

On the CONSEQUENCES of ESTABLISHING EUROPEAN COLONIES in EGYPT.

From Mr Brougham's Inquiry into the Colonial policy of the European Powers.

I shall now take an example of a remote cauſe, which may, by a leſs obvious and apparent proceſs, operate the deſtruction of the colonial ſyſtem in the Weſt, and affect more immediately, though not ſo dangerouſly, the colonial dominions ſituated in the Eaſt Indies.

During the laſt years of the eighteenth century, by far the moſt eventful period in the hiſtory of the human ſpecies, a ſcheme was put in execution, by the revolutionary rulers of France, which appears to have been frequently in the contemplation of the ancient Government. When the colonial power of the republic in America had been almoſt extinguiſhed, the foundation of a new and invaluable colony was laid by the ſudden conqueſt of Egypt. The unparalleled atchievements of the Britiſh arms, towards the end of the war, reconquered it to the Turkiſh empire. But it is almoſt needleſs to obſerve, that for many years before the French expedition, the Porte had ceaſed to have any real power over this fine province; that the unexpected victories of the laſt campaign have not in any degree reformed its domeſtic adminiſtration; that it lies as much expoſed as before to the armaments which France may again fit out from her Mediterranean coaſt; and that a convention between the Porte and the Republic, dictated by alarm or obtained by the promiſe of aſſiſtance againſt two powers the natural enemies of both, may peaceably transfer a poſſeſſion almoſt totally uſeleſs to its preſent maſters. It is of ſome importance to conſider the natural conſequences of an event ſo extremely probable, to the intereſts, firſt of the Aſiatic, and then of the American colonial ſyſtems.

I. The moſt obvious danger, but I apprehend, by far the leaſt formidable that can ariſe from the eſtabliſhment of any European colony in Egypt, is the riſk of invaſion to which the Eaſt Indian ſettlements may be expoſed. As France is the power moſt likely to attempt the eſtabliſhment of a colony in Egypt, and as ſhe is undoubtedly the moſt able to derive advantage from this acquiſition, we ſhall, in general, take for an example the caſe of Egypt becoming a French colony; a caſe already for nearly three years fully realized.

1. In attacking from this quarter the Britiſh ſettlements on the Malabar coaſt, France will poſſeſs many very obvious advantages, from the near neighbourhood of her new colony. The communication between Alexandria and Marſeilles is much eaſier and ſhort-

er than that between the capital and the frontier provinces of ſome European ſtates; between St Peterſburg, for inſtance, and the Ruſſian provinces on the Black Sea. The average paſſage to Alexandria is fifteen or twenty days; and from thence to Suez is only a journey of a week. It is poſſible, with favourable winds, to diſpatch a courier from Paris, who ſhall paſs through Egypt; deliver his inſtructions to the colonial government eſtabliſhed at Cairo; carry on advices to the expedition fitting out at Suez or Coſſeir on the Red Sea, and proceed with diſpatches to part of the armament arrived at Surat on the Malabar coaſt, in fifty days. But admitting the average to be ten weeks, how much ſhorter is this than the time taken by a quick-ſailing veſſel to reach Bombay from Britain?

It muſt, however, be remarked, that the route, though ſhort, is almoſt entirely by ſea. So long as Britain retains the decided naval ſuperiority in Europe, the communication between France and her new colony is commanded by Britiſh cruiſers. The ſame remark applies ſtill more ſtrongly to the communication between Egypt and India. A powerful fleet, ſtationed on the Malabar coaſt, may always cruiſe off the Straights of Babelmandel, or in the Channel itſelf, or in the Red Sea, of which the navigation muſt be ſtill more dangerous to a large fleet of tranſports than to a ſquadron of the line. Beſides, the veſſels neceſſary for the expedition muſt be conſtructed in the colony, where for many years ſhipbuilding cannot be expected to flouriſh; or they muſt be brought round by the Cape, and conſequently expoſed to the Britiſh fleets. The navigation of the Red Sea, too, in every part extremely bad, is impracticable for large veſſels within eighty leagues from Suez. It muſt alſo be remembered that no part of the world is more ſubject to regular and ſtrong monſoons than the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea; and, what cannot fail to hamper any expedition fitted out from Egypt with very great difficulties, the direction of the wind varies in different parts of the paſſage at the ſame time. Thus, during the ſix months of northerly monſoon in the Red Sea, the ſoutherly monſoon prevails in the Indian Ocean.

After the dangers of the firſt coup de main, therefore, are over, (and in modern times ſuch ſudden ſhocks have ſeldom or never any effect), the Bombay government, aſſiſted by the ſquadron which the neighbourhood of Egypt will conſtantly render neceſſary in the Indian Ocean, may be expected to provide ſufficiently for the defence of that ſettlement.

2. There can be no doubt, that, from its aſtoniſhing fertility, and advantageous poſition, Egypt, under a colonial government, will ſoon acquire immenſe wealth; and that the extenſive population which it actually maintains, and the ſtill larger number of inhabitants which it may eaſily ſupport, added to its other reſources, muſt render it a formidable neighbour to the ſettlements on the Malabar coaſt, the moſt inconſiderable of all the Britiſh colonies in the Eaſt. But the dangers to be apprehended from this improvement of Egypt, are far from being immediate. To mention only one circumſtance—The population of the country, though much greater than that of the Bombay eſtabliſhment, is made up of ſo many different nations, in ſuch a low ſtate of civilization, ſo refractory and diſunited, that for many years the colony will be very ill adapted to encounter the riſks of a ſtate of war; and, at any rate, muſt truſt for its defence and government entirely to the troops of the mother country. It can only, then, ſerve as a point from whence India may be attacked, by ſerving as a *depot* or paſſage for French troops, while it offers every where the moſt vulnerable points to attract an effectual diverſion from the enemy. When, on the other hand, the reſources of the colony have been augmented and its inhabitants diſciplined and enlightened by the progreſs of civilization, it will become, as an ultimate object, an invaluable poſſeſſion. Its ſtrength and proſperity being derived from commerce, its inhabitants will naturally be averſe to war, and more particularly to war with ſome of their beſt cuſtomers. If the mother country ſhould force it on to hoſtilities, ſhe will probably meet with re-

reſiſtance; and the amicable intercourſe may thus be continued between Egypt and Indoſtan, to their mutual advantage, in ſpite of the mother country's ambition.

3. The ſhortneſs of the paſſage between the Malabar coaſt and Suez, has often induced ſpeculative politicians to imagine that the ancient communication between Europe and India might be revived with advantage, not only for the purpoſe of conveying intelligence, but alſo for the purpoſes of commerce. It has therefore been imagined, that the nation poſſeſſed of Egypt may deprive Great Britain of her Eaſt Indian trade, and monopolize the wealth of the Eaſt, by joining the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, or by making Egypt an *entrepot* for the Aſiatic merchandize.

Upon this point it may be remarked, in the *firſt* place, that the communication between the Indian ocean and the Mediterranean, even admitting the poſſibility of joining the Red Sea with the Nile or the Mediterranean by means of a canal, would be extremely tedious and inconvenient for the courſe of mercantile tranſactions. A ſwift ſailing veſſel, of ſmall bulk, fit for beating to windward and for avoiding rocks and ſhallows, might eaſily carry diſpatches down the Red Sea, at times when no fleet of merchantmen could encounter the monſoons. The meſſenger intruſted with them could, without difficulty, perform his journey through Egypt in a week, either by the Nile and the canal, or by land carriage, while repeated difficulties would neceſſarily occur to retard the progreſs of laden boats and caravans. I ſpeak not of the dangers which valuable merchandize muſt run, in the preſent unſettled ſtate of the country, from the various tribes of banditti that infeſt both the river and the deſerts; or of the many difficulties and vexations ariſing from the poſitive inſtitutions ſupported by the Porte and the Beys, for the purpoſes of legal plunder. Admitting that all theſe impediments to the communication ſhall be aboliſhed, as ſome of them certainly muſt ceaſe with the preſent order of things, there are ſtill various phyſical obſtacles to the projected communication, which muſt for ever diminiſh, perhaps deſtroy, the ſuperiority of this route in point of ſhortneſs. The ſame veſſels which navigate the Mediterranean cannot aſcend the Nile, and croſs the deſert in the canal. The goods muſt therefore be all unloaded at Alexandria. The canal and river boats can never encounter the tempeſts and ſwell of the Red Sea and Indian Ocean. Another loading will therefore be neceſſary at Suez, although the river boats ſhould be able to navigatee the canal. Hence the loſs and expence of two additional loadings and unloadings muſt be deducted from the profits of the cargo; and the delay occaſioned thereby muſt be added to the total length of the paſſage. Moreover, unleſs a prodigious number of veſſels are employed in this trade, the goods muſt often pay for two veſſels inſtead of one; ſince it will frequently happen, that the empty veſſels cannot immediately receive a new freight. The profits, too, of the conſignees in Egypt muſt be taken into account; or, if the goods are accompanied by ſupercargoes, their wages come to diminiſh the total gains. Laſtly, however ſhort the voyage may be, it cannot be undertaken at all times, on account of the monſoons. Niebuhr ſays that a ſkilful voyager may go from Suez to India and back again in a year, by taking advantage of the half yearly wind. But if the winds blow half-yearly, it is clear that two voyages may be made in thirteen months. Still it will not be poſſible, after making every allowance, to perform the voyage from Europe to India oftener than twice in the courſe of eighteen months. This will clearly appear from the following ſtatement.

The moſt advantageous time of ſailing from Marſeilles, will be the middle of June. Suppoſe that the average time taken in tranſporting goods from thence to Suez is ſix weeks (it cannot poſſibly be rated lower, when we conſider the double loading and unloading): The merchandiſe is ſhipped at Suez in the beginning of Auguſt, and is immediately carried down the Red Sea by the northerly monſoon. In a month it arrives at the Malabar coaſt, and is unſhipped: A new cargo, we ſhall ſuppoſe, is taken in, and ready to return with the firſt ſoutherly mon-

ſoon; it arrives at Suez in the beginning of November, and at Marſeilles about the middle of December. Now, in however ſhort a time a new cargo may be ſhipped, it cannot ſail ſooner than the middle of February, otherwiſe it would have to wait at Suez for the northerly monſoon, which begins in April. The veſſels will arrive at Bombay in May, and muſt wait there till October for the ſoutherly monſoon. It will therefore not return to Marſeilles until the middle of December, which is juſt eighteen months from the ſailing of the firſt cargo.

The expence of theſe two voyages will undoubtedly be ſomewhat ſmaller than that of the Cape voyages, which might be performed in the ſame time. But the expences of loading, the canal and river expences, the commiſſion or ſupercargo's wages, the extraordinary tear and wear of veſſels in the Red Sea and Straits of Babelmandel, together with the inutility of thoſe ſhips during the months when they are not employed, and the idleneſs of the crews during the greater part of that time, may be conſidered as almoſt ſufficient to balance ſo trifling an advantage.

But it is not by any means probable that the communication between the Mediterranean and Red Seas will be ſo eaſy as we have ſuppoſed. The junction of the Nile with the Gulf of Suez by a canal, has been frequently projected; and we are even told that in ancient times it was affected. That it was more than once attempted, there can be no doubt; but the impracticability of ſuch a ſcheme is now almoſt placed beyond a doubt. This ariſes, not ſo much from the old opinion, of the level being higher in the Red Sea than in the Mediterranean, as from the nature of the ground through which the cut muſt neceſſarily paſs. The diſtance between Cairo and Suez is above one hundred and five Engliſh miles by the caravan track, according to Niebuhr; according to others, one hundred and fifty miles; it is above ſeventy miles in a ſtraight line. The canal cut muſt certainly be one hundred at the very leaſt; and the whole of this route is a ſandy deſert, where the ſoil is perpetually ſhifting with the wind, and where no foundation can be obtained for conſtructing works of any kind. Beſides, although the natural level of the Red Sea and Mediterranean may be the ſame, the effect of a wind of uncommon violence, that is, the half year's monſoon, or, as ſome have called it, the nine months monſoon, blowing all the waters of the Indian Ocean through the Straits of Babelmandel, muſt be to raiſe their level, and drive an irreſiſtible current through the Gulf of Suez. This, of itſelf, would render the canal impracticable, even although the experiment ſhould be tried, as it once was, by cutting from Suez due north, ſo as to join the Red Sea, with a ſmall river that runs into the Nile, a few miles below Cairo, or by cutting ſtraight through the Iſthmus. The manifold inconveniences, too, of an inland navigation through a deſert, deſerve to be conſidered, admitting the poſſibility of forming the cut. All theſe inconveniences would either be of ſuch a nature as to damage the goods tranſported, or to increaſe the expence of carriage, by the repairs neceſſary for the canal, and the diſtance from whence it would be neceſſary to tranſport every article of conſumption required for the perſons and cattle employed on its banks, or in the boats. We may therefore conclude, that the communication between Europe and India through Egypt, cannot be facilitated by any internal navigation; and that, in addition to all the expence and delay formerly enumerated as the neceſſary attendants of ſuch a ſcheme, there muſt be reckoned the coſt and time required for a new loading and unloading at Cairo, together with the conſignee's profits, and the riſks and charges of a journey acroſs the deſert. From all that has been ſaid, I am inclined to infer the impoſſibility of gaining any important advantage, in point of eaſy and expeditious mercantile communication with the Eaſt, by the poſſeſſion of Egypt.

It may farther be obſerved, that the ſtatements above detailed with reſpect to the winds, clearly prove the abſurdity of ſuppoſing that ſuch a communication would be ſhorter or eaſier to France than to any other maritime country. The only difference between the navigation of the Marſeilloiſe and the Newcaſtle veſſels is, that the former would be a few weeks in the year long-

longer at reſt than the latter. They would both make the ſame number of voyages in the year; and, conſequently, if a free trade were allowed to India through Egypt, the diſtant nation would be able to derive as much advantage from it as the nation poſſeſſed of the colony, and ſituated in its immediate vicinity.

But, in the *ſecond* place, admitting the certainty of all the advantages which have been expected from the communication with India by the Iſthmus of Suez; and admitting that France, in poſſeſſion of Egypt, ſhall monopolize the carriage of Eaſt Indian commodities; it is evident that this change muſt be as beneficial to Great Britain, to the other conſumers of Aſiatic produce, and to the colonies themſelves, as to France. The ſuperior cheapneſs and ſhortneſs of the new route will be the cauſe of the preference given to the French carriers; and, like any of thoſe natural or acquired advantages which confer upon particular nations ſuperior ſkill in one branch of the trade or manufacture, the poſſeſſion of Egypt will be a benefit, not only to the French, but to their cuſtomers. The advantages derived from it will thus be mutual, like the advantages which once rendered the Dutch the carriers and brokers of Europe, and thoſe which render the Engliſh the chief manufacturers. The goods of Eaſt Indian growth or fabric will be tranſported cheaper and better to England and Holland, though not in Engliſh and Dutch veſſels; the agriculture and manufactures of the colonies will therefore be promoted; and the capital formerly employed in carrying the colonial merchandize to the mother country will be employed either in ſupplying the new demands of the colonies, occaſioned by the improved communication, or in preparing manufactures to meet the demands of the French market, extended by the increaſed wealth of the country, and deprived of a ready ſupply by the quantity of ſtock withdrawn to the carrying trade.

A ſimilar obſervation may be applied to that view of the ſubject which would lead us to apprehend danger from our natural enemy becoming maſter of the wealth and ſtrength of Egypt, in ſo far as its reſources are likely to be augmented by its mercantile connexion with the Eaſt. There cannot indeed be any doubt that the poſition of Egypt is extremely favourable to all the branches of commerce, as its ſoil and climate are admirably adapted to the raiſing of raw produce; that it will ſoon become the moſt valuable colony in the world; and that one of the branches of trade which will contribute eſſentially to its wealth, is the traffic with India. In itſelf, therefore, this ſplendid acquiſition will be of incalculable advantage to France; and, from its ſituation in the immediate neighbourhood of Europe, as well as from its influence upon the relative power of the mother country, it is a change well calculated to rouſe the jealouſy of all the other ſtates. But, at preſent, we are only contemplating the probable effects of the acquiſition upon the colonial ſyſtems; and, however much Egypt immediately, or France conſequentially, may gain by the commerce of the Eaſt, the advantage muſt neceſſarily be exactly equal to the Indian ſtates or the colonies with which the trade may be carried on, and conſequently to the European ſtates poſſeſſing thoſe Aſiatic colonies.

Were the Eaſt Indian commerce of Britain and Holland laid open to the whole capital which could be drawn into it, the neighbourhood of ſuch a colony as Egypt muſt ſoon become, under the government of France, would be, of all changes that could happen, the moſt beneficial, both to the Indian colonies, and to the mercantile intereſts of the parent ſtates as connected with thoſe colonies.

From its poſition, Egypt will be the natural *entrepot* of the Indian merchandize; from its wealth, it will offer, in itſelf, a moſt extenſive market for every thing which is raiſed or manufactured in Aſia. From the nature of its produce (as we ſhall immediately ſee), it will interfere ſo very little with the commodities raiſed in the Eaſt, that no great or ſudden ſhifting of colonial capital or induſtry will be the conſequence of Egypt being improved to the uttermoſt; and from the peculiar fertility of this country in all ſorts of grain, it will afford a ſure reſource to the natives of the peninſula, ſo often liable to the miſeries of extenſive famine. To the colonies, then,

and

and in like manner, to the conſumers of colonial produce, the neighbourhood of this great *entrepot* for Eaſtern merchandize, will be as advantageous as the corn-merchant is to the farmer and conſumer of grain, or the retail dealer to the manufacturer and uſer of wrought goods, or the merchant importer in the mother country to the colonies and conſumers of colonial produce; while the market and the ſupplies which ſo rich and populous a country will afford, cannot fail incalculably to promote the wealth of the colonies in the firſt inſtance, and ultimately to augment the riches of the mother country alſo.

There is indeed no doubt, that ſome of the ſtock formerly employed in carrying Eaſt India goods, muſt now be ſhifted to another occupation. Part of that ſtock, inſtead of bringing them round the Cape, with a ſlow return of profits, will now bring from India to Egypt, and from Egypt to Europe, with a much quicker return. The competition of Egyptian and French capital will unqueſtionably throw out another part of the capital formerly veſted in the Indian trade. But this is only a conſequence of the free commerce which we are ſuppoſing to be eſtabliſhed, and which would produce the very ſame effects on the traffic, as is at preſent carried on by the Cape. It is unneceſſary to prove that this ſhifting of Capital, ſlowly acted, can produce only good conſequences to the mother country, and confer upon the colonies the ſame benefits as if a vaſt capital were gradually poured into their agriculture, manufactures and commerce.

If it be ſuppoſed that the preſent ſyſtems of monopoly ſhall continue in the Aſiatic colonies, the colonies and the parent ſtates will have to lament all that additional loſs to which they will now be ſubjected, comparatively ſpeaking, by being excluded from a ſhare in the vaſt additional benefits ſo likely to flow from a free trade with their new neighbours. But this neighbourhood will not on that account occaſion any real loſs, either to the colony or the mother country. Things will remain actually in the ſame ſtate as before the eſtabliſhment of the colony in Egypt. If, however, the abſurd policy of the other ſtates poſſeſſing Eaſt Indian territories, ſhall drive the new rulers of the colony to ſeek for ſettlements among the native powers on the coaſts of the penninſula, or among the iſlands of the Indian ocean, or to attempt, by treaty with thoſe powers, the extention of the ſettlements already obtained, or to extend their commercial relations with the Aſiatics, whoſe purſuits may in no ſmall degree be new-modelled by the intercourſe of the merchants belonging to the new colony; then, the ſupport of the preſent Eaſt Indian monopolies will be a matter of much greater difficulty than it hitherto has been. In ſpite of England and Holland, the merchants of the French colony will obtain abundance of Eaſt Indian goods, and will be able greatly to underſell the Eaſt India Companies in every market, although thoſe bodies ſhould reform their groſs abuſes, trade as economically as individuals, and be contented to take the loweſt, inſtead of the monopoly profits. Thus, beſides the great difficulty to preventing a contraband trade, mutually lucrative, from being carried on between Egypt and their ſettlements in India, the companies will have to ſtruggle againſt the ſtill greater difficulty of preventing a contraband trade equally gainful from being carried on in Europe. In order to ſupport the excluſive privileges of thoſe corporations, the legiſlatures of the reſpective countries will be obliged to new-model all their reſtrictive laws; and it may probably be found that a new code of cuſtom-houſe law will be inadequate to check ſuch a ſyſtem of ſmuggling as muſt be engendered both in Aſia and Europe, by the temptations of aſtoniſhing profits, and maintain the excluſive privileges of trading corporations for any profitable purpoſe. The contraband trade in Swediſh teas carried on ſome years ago, notwithſtanding all the efforts of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company to check it, muſt be freſh in the memory of every one; yet, compared with the new contraband, of which we are now ſpeaking, that traffic was trifling indeed. In ſhort, it is ſcarcely poſſible to figure the continuance of ſuch trading companies, after the Egyptain colony ſhall have been firmly eſtabliſhed. The influence of thoſe bodies will probably prevail, ſo far as to obtain the ſuppoſ-

of their reſpective governments, until the evil becomes too great for any legiſlative remedies. The end of ſuch commercial nuiſances will then be allowed to approach, when no efforts of ſtate can prevent the cataſtrophe; and, according to a feature but too common in the character of human councils, the nations which have been ſo eſſentially injured by thoſe deſtructive ſyſtems of monopoly, will at laſt be forced to relieve themſelves from the evil, in conſequence of external events beyond the ſphere of their controul. It is not eaſy to avoid wiſhing for any change, even a change favourable to the power of France, which may gradually but effectually blot out from the colonial policy of Europe all remains of commercial monopoly and company government.

In a mercantile point of view, then, the powers poſſeſſing Eaſt Indian colonies have nothing to apprehend, but much to hope for their diſtant ſettlements, from the improvement of Egypt and its ſubjection to a regular and efficient government. In a political point of view, thoſe colonies have little to dread from ſuch a change. A little more vigilance will be required, a larger fleet and a higher eſtabliſhment of land forces will be neceſſary in time of war; but no real danger can ever ariſe from this quarter, to the preſent ſyſtem of colonial power in the peninſula and Aſiatic iſlands. Still leſs need any apprehenſions of this nature be entertained from the eſtabliſhment of an independent primary government in Egypt, ſuppoſing ſuch an event to be at all poſſible in the preſent circumſtances of that country. The new power will never regard India as a ſcene of conqueſt, whilſt Arabia, Syria, and the Archipelago remain unſubdued. It is only the relations which ſubſiſt between France and the parent ſtates of the Indian colonies, that could ever render the project of invading the peninſula a matter of ſerious conſideration. In a commercial point of view, it will not make any difference whether the improvement of Egypt is effected by foreign conqueſt, or by the efforts of an independent and civilized government eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the Ottoman and Mameluc power. In either caſe the conſequences muſt be equally beneficial to the colonial intereſts of all the European powers poſſeſſed of Aſiatic dominions.

ACCOUNT OF THE PEARL FISHERY OF CEYLON.

From Mr Percival's Account of that Iſland.

Continued from Page 396.

THE divers are paid differently according to their private agreement with the boat-owners. They are paid either in money, or with a proportion of the oyſters caught, which they take the chance of opening on their own account; the latter is the method moſt commonly adopted. The agreements with the people who hire out the boats are conducted much in the ſame manner. They contract either to receive a certain ſum for the uſe of their boats, or pay the chief farmer of the banks a certain ſum for permiſſion to fiſh on their own account. Some of thoſe who purſue the latter plan are very ſucceſsful and become rich; while others are great loſers by the ſpeculation. Oyſter lotteries are carried on here to a great extent; they conſiſt of purchaſing a quantity of the oyſters unopened, and running the chance of either finding or not finding pearls in them. The European officers and gentlemen, who attend here upon duty or through curioſity, are particularly fond of theſe lotteries, and very frequently make purchaſes of this ſort.

The boat-owners and merchants are very apt to loſe many of the beſt pearls while the boats are on their return to the bay from the banks, as the oyſters when

when alive and left for some time undisturbed frequently open their shells of their own accord: a pearl may then be easily discovered, and the oyster prevented by means of a bit of grass or soft wood from again closing its shell, till an opportunity offers of picking out the pearl. Those fellows who are employed to search among the fish also commit many depredations, and even swallow the pearls to conceal them; when this is suspected, the plan followed by the merchants is to lock the fellows up, and give them strong emetics and purgatives, which have frequently the effect of discovering the stolen goods.

As soon as the oysters are taken out of the boats, they are carried by the different people to whom they belong and placed in holes or pits dug in the ground to the depth of about two feet, or in small square places cleared and fenced round for the purpose; each person having his own separate division. Mats are spread below them to prevent the oysters from touching the earth; and here they are left to die and rot. As soon as they have passed through a state of putrefaction, and have become dry, they are easily opened without any danger of injuring the pearls, which might be the case if they were opened fresh, as at that time to do so requires great force. On the shell being opened, the oyster is minutely examined for the pearls: it is usual even to boil the oyster, as the pearl, though commonly found in the shell, is not unfrequently contained in the body of the fish itself.

The stench occasioned by the oysters being left to putrefy is intolerable; and remains for a long while after the fishery is over. It corrupts the atmosphere for several miles round Condatchy, and renders the neighbourhood of that country extremely unpleasant till the monsoons and violent southwest winds set in and purify the air. The nauseous smell however is not able to overcome the hopes of gain: for months after the fishing season, numbers of people are to be seen earnestly searching and poring over the sands and places where the oysters had been laid to putrefy; and some are now and then fortunate enough to find a pearl that amply compensates their trouble in searching after them. In 1797 while Mr Andrews was collector, a Cooly, or common fellow of the lowest class, got by accident the most valuable pearl seen that season, and sold it to Mr Andrews for a large sum.

The pearls found at this fishery are of a whiter colour than those got in the gulph of Ormus on the Arabian coast, but in other respects are not accounted so pure or of such an excellent quality; for though the white pearls are more esteemed in Europe, the natives prefer those of a yellowish or golden cast. Off Tutucoreen, which lies on the Coromandel coast, nearly opposite to Condatchy, there is another fishery; but the pearls found there are much inferior to those two species I have mentioned, being tainted with a blue or greyish tinge.

In preparing the pearls, particularly in drilling and stringing them, the black people are wonderfully expert. I was very much struck with the instrument they employ in drilling, as well as the dexterity with which they use it. A machine made of wood, and of a shape resembling an obtuse inverted cone, about six inches in length, and four in breadth, is supported upon three feet, each twelve inches long. In the upper flat surface of this machine, holes or pits are formed to receive the larger pearls, the smaller ones being beat in with a little wooden hammer. The drilling instruments are spindles of various sizes according to that of the pearls; they are turned round in a wooden head by means of a bow handle to which they are attached. The pearls being placed in the pits which we have mentioned, and the point of the spindle adjusted to them, the workman presses on the wooden head of the machine with his left hand, while his right is employed in turning round the bow handle. During the process of drilling, he occasionally moistens the pearl by dipping the little finger of his right hand in a cocoa-nut filled with water which is placed by him for that purpose; this he does with a dexterity and quickness which scarcely impedes the operation, and can only be acquired by much practice.

They have also a variety of other instruments, both for cutting and drilling the pearls. To clean, round, and polish them to that state in which we see them, a powder made of the pearls them-

themſelves is employed. Theſe different operations in preparing the pearls occupy a great number of the black men in various parts of the iſland. In the black town or pettah of Columbo in particular, many of them may every day be ſeen at this work, which is well worth the attention of any European who is not already acquainted with it.

Such are the circumſtances relative to the pearl fiſhery, which have fallen under my obſervation. Owing to its having been formerly inconſiderately exhauſted by the avarice of the Dutch, it is not perhaps ſo productive as it once was. The revenue which Government derives from it is ſtill however conſiderable, and may by good management be increaſed. Pearls are conſidered as the next ſtaple of the iſland to cinnamon; the concourſe of people which it attracts affords a facility for diſpoſing of the other produce; and by proper management, advantage might be taken of the opportunity here offered to introduce our manufactures into various parts of India.

Before we leave the bay of Condatchy, it may be amuſing to take a view of the various objects which moſt attract the attention of a ſtranger during the pearl fiſhery. The remarkable diſplay of Indian manners, which are here ſeen in all their varieties, is, perhaps, the moſt ſtriking of theſe. Every caſt has its repreſentatives; the arts practiſed by ſome, the ceremonies performed by others, and the appearance of all, preſent the richeſt repaſt to the curioſity of an European. In one place he may ſee jugglers and vagabonds of every deſcription practiſing their tricks with a degree of ſuppleneſs and ſkill, which appear ſupernatural to the inhabitant of a cold climate; in another he may obſerve Fakeers, Brahmins, Prieſts, Pandarams, and devotees of every ſect, either in order to extort charity, or in conſequence of ſome vow, going through the moſt painful operations with a degree of obſtinate reſolution, which I could ſcarcely have believed or even conceived, had I not been an eye-witneſs. I hope it will not be thought an improper digreſſion from my narrative, if I mention a few of thoſe circumſtances which moſt attracted my notice: they are not particularly connected with a deſcription of Ceylon, but they will certainly afford one ſource of amuſement to the traveller who viſits it.

The moſt painful acts of penance which the Indians undergo, are in order to regain their caſt, when they have loſt it either by eating things forbidden by the rules of their ſect, or by having ſuch connection with people of a different deſcription as is ſuppoſed to defile them. In this ſtate they are held in abhorrence by perſons of their own ſect, debarred from all intercourſe with them, and prohibited even to touch them. From ſuch a dreadful ſtate of defilement they can be purified only by paying a large ſum of money, or by undergoing the moſt incredible penances. Among thoſe which I obſerved, I ſhall mention a few of the moſt remarkable. One of them will vow to hold his arm elevated over his head for a certain number of years, without once letting it down; and this he will actually continue to do, till the arm can never afterwards be recovered to its natural poſition. Another will keep his hand ſhut till the nails on his fingers abſolutely grow into the fleſh, and appear quite through at the back of his hand. Many never ſuffer their hair to be combed, or their beards to be ſhaved: in this ſtate the hair of their heads, which is of a brown or burnt colour, gets matted, and appears not unlike the mops we uſe in Europe; or hangs down in long diſhevelled ſtrings, ſimilar to that which grows on a ſpecies of French lap-dogs. Some will vow never to lie down; while, at the ſame time, they wear round their necks a large iron inſtrument not unlike a gridiron without a handle.

But one of the moſt extraordinary of theſe ceremonies which I have witneſſed is, ſwinging for their caſt, as it is termed. A very high and ſtrong poſt, or cocoa-tree, is planted firmly in the ground; croſſways, on its top, another beam is placed in ſuch a manner as to turn round on a pivot, and made faſt to the upright poſt by ropes reeved through both like the yards to the maſt of a ſhip; and from the end of the tranſverſe beam, ropes and pullies are ſuſpended to hoiſt up the devotee. He is then brought out, attended by a number of people dancing before him; and is led thrice round the ſwinging poſt by the Brahmins and his relations, with

with loud ſhouts, accompanied by muſic. In the mean time a ſheep is ſacrificed, and the blood ſprinkled about on the ſurrounding multitude, who are eager that it ſhall fall upon them. Barren women, in particular, are anxious to catch the drops, in hopes of being by this means rendered fruitful; and with a view to ſecure the efficacy of this charm, they contrive to work themſelves up during the ceremony, to the higheſt pitch of religious delirium, tearing their hair and ſhrieking in the moſt dreadful manner. After the ſacrifice is performed, the devotee is placed on his belly, flat on the ground; and two very large hooks, which have been previouſly fixed to the ropes ſuſpended from the end of the croſs beam, are inſerted deep into the fleſh of his back juſt under the ſhoulders; other ropes are alſo placed under his breaſt, and acroſs his thighs, to help to ſuſtain the weight of his body. He is then, by means of the ropes and pullies, hoiſted up to the croſs tree, immediately under which he continues ſuſpended; and in this poſition he is drawn round the poſt two or three times. During this painful ceremony he repeats a certain number of prayers, and continues to throw among the crowd flowers which he had taken up with him for the purpoſe: theſe are conſidered as ſacred relics, which will keep away all diſeaſe, and enſure happineſs ever after; and the ſurrounding multitude ſcramble for them as eagerly as any Engliſh mob for money thrown among them.

This ceremony is by no means unfrequent, and I have had occaſion to be preſent at more than one, during my ſtay in Ceylon. The laſt I ſaw performed was at Columbo in 1799, when the croſs beam broke, and the man falling to the ground was killed on the ſpot. A Moor of the Moply caſt had previouſly obſerved to the crowd, who were principally Malabars of the ſame ſect with the devotee, that the timber was not ſtrong enough to bear the man, and would certainly break. This proving actually to be the caſe, the Malabars affirmed that the Moor had by his prediction bewitched it; and in revenge they attacked him with ſuch fury, that he would certainly have been killed, had not I with a few other European officers and Sepoys, whom curioſity had brought to the ſpot, interfered and reſcued him out of their hands.

The prieſts who attend at Condatchy on account of theſe and other ceremonies, as well as many other ſects of religious mendicants, are a great nuiſance there; for, beſides being exceedingly lazy and idle, they are likewiſe very impudent and troubleſome. But they are not the only peſts which annoy the multitudes collected at the pearl fiſhery. There are beſides a crowd of jugglers, ſnake-catchers, dancing boys and girls of all deſcriptions, as well as many who follow no other occupation but to procure their livelihood by the arts of filching and thieving, at which they are exceedingly dexterous. This practice, however, is the more pardonable in them, as it appears to be an inherent propenſity in an Indian. In their dealings with an European, whenever an opportunity preſents itſelf, they never fail to employ their ſkill in overreaching him. It is only however by pilfering and ſtealing that he ſuffers from them, for they hardly ever venture to rob or take his goods from him by open force. So great, indeed, is the awe which the atchievements of the Europeans have inſpired into the natives of India, that a black man is ſcarcely ever known to meet a white man hand to hand, either in private conflict or in battle.

There is no ſcene at which the native Indians can have a finer opportunity of turning their dexterity to account, than the bay of Condatchy, at the ſeaſon of the pearl fiſhery. For this reaſon, rogues flock thither from all parts of India, and no precaution is ſufficient to prevent their depredations. Their practice of picking out the pearls from the oyſters and ſecreting them is, in particular, carried to a great height, and it has been found impoſſible to put a ſtop to it. In this general cenſure of the natives of India, I do not include the native Ceyloneſe; for, although the pearl fiſhery be carried on in their iſland, yet few of them attend it, in compariſon of the numbers who flock from other parts of India. Nor are they at all ſo much addicted to roguery, nor equal in ſlight of hand, to the Indians of the continent, who ſeem to have theſe accompliſhments by inheritance, and are very proud of them, it being a common proverb with them,

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"The greater rogue the greater man." I ſpeak of this diſpoſition among them from my own experience, as I and my brother officers were repeatedly ſufferers by it. Indeed there are few who viſit India, who will not ſoon have occaſion to acquire perſonal knowledge of it.

At Condatchy their depredations are reduced to a ſyſtem, and no precautions can entirely guard againſt them. The boat-owners and merchants dealing in the oyſters, are obliged to hire people to collect the pearls out of them: and to prevent embezzling, confidential perſons are appointed, who conſtantly attend to watch over and obſerve them. One inſtance I recollect of the ingenuity employed by the Indians to evade the care of the ſuperintendants. A band of them having been employed by a boat-owner to open his oyſters, they concerted a regular plan for pilfering the moſt valuable pearls. One was appointed to be the thief, and to contrive to ſteal away a valuable pearl; while another, on a ſignal being previouſly given, was to make a ſhew of carrying off one of ſmall value, and to run the riſk of being puniſhed for this offence, in order to attract the attention of the ſuperintendant, and thus afford an opportunity to the real thief to get his booty clear off. This plan having been arranged, they went on very quietly with their work, till one of them lighted upon a very valuable pearl, and inſtantly made the ſignal to the thief, who was to act the feigned part. The latter, according to his cue, immediately began to ſecrete ſome pearls of ſmall value, in ſuch a manner as to be obſerved by the ſuperintendants, who, in conſequence, ſeized upon him, detected the pearls about him, and began to puniſh him. This occaſioned a great buſtle, for the fellow made as much noiſe and reſiſtance as he could; while, in the mean time the real thief, laid hold of the opportunity to ſecrete and ſecure the valuable pearl. This roguery was afterwards diſcovered in conſequence of a quarrel among themſelves about the diviſion of the booty. It had been agreed that the pearls ſhould be ſold, and the price divided amongſt them, according to the parts they were to act in procuring it: but the mock thief who had been puniſhed and turned off from his employment on account of his ſhare in the tranſaction, thought himſelf alſo entitled to a greater ſhare in the profits than the reſt were willing to allow him; and his claims not being admitted, he diſcovered the affair to the boat-owner. Upon this, application was inſtantly made to the officer commanding here, when the whole ſet were ſeverely puniſhed; and the pearl, being at length traced out, was reſtored to the proprietor.

LITERARY NOTICES.

THE Rev. John Holland, of Bolton, has juſt publiſhed Eſſays on Hiſtory, particularly the Jewiſh, Aſſyrian, Perſian, Grecian, and Roman; with Examinations for the uſe of young perſons; alſo, Geographical Exerciſes, modern and ancient, on a new plan. Both publications are well adapted for the inſtruction of youth.

The third number of Mr William's Picturesque Excurſions in Devonſhire and Cornwall will be publiſhed early in July.

The Poſthumous Works of the late Dr Hunter, author of Sacred Biography, with a Life of the Author, will appear in the courſe of the ſummer.

Mr T. F. Dibdin, author of the Introduction to rare and valuable Editions of the Greek and Roman Claſſics, has of late been employed in amaſſing materials for a ſecond edition of that work. The ſecond edition is intended to contain a particular account of Polyglott Bibles, editions of the Greek Septuagint and Teſtament; accompa-

nied by Critical Notes from the Prolegomena of Mills and Wetſtein. It is intended that the former publication ſhall be a ſort of key or book of reference to the ſecond edition, which will adopt the ſame method of arrangement; but which will afford more copious intelligence on points that have been therein but ſlightly diſcuſſed.

The ſame gentleman is about to publiſh a complete Account of the Evidence before the Committee of the Houſe of Commons, on the Claim of Dr Jenner to Remuneration, as the Diſcoverer and Founder of the Vaccinous Inoculation.—The work will be preceded by a ſuccinct Hiſtory of the Origin, Progreſs, and Ravages of the Small pox.

An elaborate Account of the Life and Writings of the late Dr Geddes, by Mr John Maſon Good, author of a new Tranſlation of Solomon's Songs, &c. is in the preſs, and will be publiſhed in the enſuing month.

Mr Briſted, of the Honourable Society of the Inner Temple, has been long preparing for the preſs his Anthroplanomenos; or, Tour in the Highlands of Scotland, containing an account of ſome very intereſting incidents which occurred in a pedeſtrian route in the year 1801 through a part of the Highlands.

The Rev. Mr Cartwright is preparing for the preſs a new edition of his popular tale of Armine and Elvira, with ſome other Poems which have not yet been publiſhed.

Mr Pratt is about to preſent the public with his Poem of the Poor; or, Cottage-pictures, illuminated by five intereſting Engravings by Cardon, from the deſigns of De Loutherburgh.

Mr Godwin's long expected work on the Life and Times of Chaucer will ſoon make its appearance. It will comprehend views of the progreſs of ſociety, manners, and the fine arts, from the dawn of literature, in modern Europe, to the cloſe of the fourteenth century, with characters of the principal perſonages in the courts of Edward the Third, and Richard the Second.

Dr Percival, of Mancheſter, has in the preſs, and nearly ready for publication, a work which will comprehend a General Syſtem of Medical Ethics. The outline was ſketched ſeveral years ago, and conſtitutes the code of regulations by which the Faculty of the Mancheſter Infirmary agreed to regulate their official conduct, and their intercourſe with each other. But the extended work will be addreſſed to the Medical Profeſſion at large; and will include alſo the duties of ſuch of its members as are unconnected with public eſtabliſhments of charity.—The aphoriſtic form has been choſen, as beſt calculated to define with preciſion thoſe principles of urbanity and rectitude which ſhould govern the conduct of the members of the medical profeſſion to their patients and to each other. Copious Notes and Illuſtrations will form an Appendix, and will complete the form of the undertaking.

On Wedneſday June 15th, the triple Inſcription of Roſetta, which has lain for ſome time in the Library of the Society of Antiquaries, was removed to the Muſeum, and depoſited with the reſt of the Antiquities from Egypt.

The Argus, a newſpaper publiſhed in Paris in the Engliſh language, and the profeſſed buſineſs of which is to vilify the Engliſh character and government, is at this time conducted by Thomas Dutton, a man whoſe name is known in England as Editor of the Dramatic Cenſor, and as the author of a fulſome Panegyric on the Life and Character of the preſent King!

The Academical Inſtitution for the Education of Young Men, as well for Civil and Commercial Life, as for Miniſterial Duties among Diſſenters, which has been carried on for the laſt ſeventeen years with great credit and reſpectability at Mancheſter, is about to be removed to the city of York, where it will be under the immediate direction of the Rev. Charles Wellbeloved, and other gentlemen well qualified to ſuperintend the education of youth in the various branches of ſcience, and claſſical and biblical literature.

Dr Toulmin has in the preſs, a Review of the Preaching of the Apoſtles; or, the Practical Efficacy of the Unitarian Doctrines proved and illuſtrated from the Acts of the Apoſtles, and the Epiſtles of Paul to Timothy and Titus.

A Courſe of Lectures, explaining the application of the principles of Chemiſtry to the various operations of Agriculture, has been prepared by Mr Davy; and the Introductory Lecture has been

been read before the Board, at their houſe in Sackville Street.

Perhaps it deſerves to be recorded as an anecdote in the hiſtory of Engliſh literature, that of the genuine edition of the Letters and Works of Lady Mary Wortley Montague, publiſhed during the current month, nearly two thouſand copies were actually ſold by the publiſher in his firſt delivery, within three days.

It has been diſcovered that an excellent varniſh may be made from *ſandarac* in the following manner: 1. The portions ſhould be two parts of alkohol and one of ſandarac. 2. The ſandarac muſt not be pulveriſed. 3. The ſolution ſhould be made cold, and ſhould be promoted by frequent agitation. By obſerving theſe rules, the varniſh, when applied, is almoſt always prevented from becoming of an opaque white in drying, which is occaſioned by a portion of the freſh ſubſtance (when the ſandarac is pulveriſed) that is held in ſolution by means of heat and the aid of reſin.

The following are the ingredients, in proper proportions, for making the artificial ſtone, which is a manufacture growing into conſiderable importance: Pipe-clay, 20 buſhels—brown pot-rubbiſh, i. e. broken ſpruce-beer bottles, &c. 4 ditto—Glaſs-bottle ditto, 2 ditto—Flint ditto, 1 ditto—Croydon, i. e. very white ſand, 1½ ditto. Theſe materials are to be ground and ſifted; if they are for figures, the very fine parts are only to be uſed; but if for the purpoſe of contracting the ſize of ſtoves, or other rough work, the coarſe may be made uſe of. Figures, and other finiſhed articles, muſt be baked in a furnace.

The new metal which has been announced to the public, under the name of *palladium*, is found to be a compoſition of two parts of platina and one of mercury.

In the New Tranſactions of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, is an account of an eel *(gadus lota)* in which eggs and ſoft roe were found at the ſame time, proving it to be an hermaphrodite fiſh.

In a Berlin Journal, there is an intereſting extract of a letter of M. Alexander de Humboldt.—He there gives an account of the progreſs of his voyage in South America. This letter is written from Contreras, near Ibagua, in New Granada. Before he quitted Carthagena, M. de Humboldt viſited the wood of Turbaco, celebrated for the immenſe bulk of its trees; ſome are eight feet in diameter, and of the ſpecies named *Caranilleſia Mocondo*, long ago recognized by Jaquin, a traveller in the reign of Francis I. M. de Humboldt, who had propoſed to go to Peru, could not reſiſt the deſire of repairing to Santa Fé de Bogota, to ſee there the celebrated botaniſt Mutis, now ſeventy two years of age, and one of the friends of Linnæus. Inſtead therefore, of proceeding by ſea to Guavaquil, which was much more commodious, he purſued by land the route of Quito, by Santa Fé. He navigated at firſt, for forty-five days, on the Magdelan River, amid the moſt frightful tempeſts and moſt dangerous cataracts. He deſigned in this voyage the topographical chart of the country, in four ſheets in folio, of which the Viceroy retained a copy. When arrived at Honda, in five degrees of north latitude he viſited the ruins of Mariquita and of Saint Anne. He found in this country conſiderable plantations of cinnamon and nutmeg-trees, and entire foreſts of the tree which furniſhes the *quinquina*, and of the almond-tree, named by the botaniſts *calyocar amygdaliferum*. M. de Humboldt was then accompanied by a Frenchman named Deſieux, to whom the Spaniſh Government confided the care of thoſe plantations. Our travellers arrived at length at the entrance of the Cordilleras, *(la Bocca del Monte)*; they aſcended the firſt heights, and arrived in the plain of Bogota, one of the moſt elevated on the globe; this plain was formerly a lake, of thirty-two leagues ſquare ſurface; in the middle is ſituated the city of Santa Fé. M. Humboldt was received there as in triumph; ſixty perſons on horſe-back went to meet him; the reſpectable Mutis had prepared for him a houſe near to his own. The King of Spain allows ten thouſand piaſtres per annum to this botanical eſtabliſhment. For fifteen years paſt thirty painters have been employed there, under the direction of Mutis; they have executed three thouſand deſigns in folio, which have all the finiſhing of miniature. M. de Humboldt can only compare the botanical collection of D. J. Celeſtino Mutis to that

that of Sir Joſeph Banks, of London. M. de Humboldt meaſured the height of the mountains which environ Santa Fé, many of which riſe to 2000 and 2400 toiſes. From Santa Fe he was to repair to Quito, then to Lima. He was to be at Acapulco in the month of May of this year; and from thence, after having traverſed Mexico, he propoſed to return to Europe by the Philippines and the Cape of Good Hope. Such a voyage, executed by a man ſo enlightened, promiſes the happieſt reſults to the ſciences.

The Society of Encouragement of National Induſtry of Paris, has lately publiſhed its proſpectus of the prizes to be offered to thoſe who ſhall beſt reſolve certain queſtions relative to agriculture and the arts. The ſubjects propoſed are, the manufacture of wooden ſcrews, 1500 francs; the purification of irons, 6000 francs; the fabrication of alum, 1200 francs; experiments on combuſtible wood, 1400 francs; for preſerving the faculty of germination in ſeeds, 500 francs; for the amelioration of wool, 800 francs; the culture of the Swediſh turnip, 600 francs; the manufacture of nets, 1000 francs; of white lead 2000 francs; of Pruſſian blue, 600 francs; and for the economical manufacture of enamelled vaſes, 1000 francs.

Were we to judge from the bulk of the Catalogue of the late Leipſic Fair, we ſhould not imagine that German literature was at all on the decline. But, on examining the contents, we muſt confeſs, that, though they ſhew the nation to be highly advanced in chemical, phyſical, and mathematical knowledge, as well as in ſome other branches of ſcience; yet, as to productions of good taſte, little appears in the whole Catalogue, that ſeems to promiſe any thing farther than a ſhortlived exiſtence.

Some hitherto unpubliſhed letters of Voltaire to Frederick the Great, have been lately publiſhed at Paris, from the originals; which, it appears from the editor's account of them, have been ſent from Weimar to M. Bafi, ſecretary of legation to the Prince of Heſſe Darmſtadt, at Paris. M. Boiſſonade, who is authoriſed to publiſh them, confeſſes his ignorance how and where theſe letters have been found; but he makes no doubt of their authenticity, being aſſured of the fame by ſome well known literati, who were in habits of correſpondence with Voltaire, and from his having actually confronted theſe letters with other autographs preſerved in the National Library. "Beſides, (ſays M. Boiſſonade) we find in theſe letters the well known ſtyle of their author; and this proof of their authenticity will not be the leſs ſtrong, even if it be objected that the hand of M. de Voltaire may have been counterfeited, for undoubtedly it cannot be ſuppoſed that it would have been ſo eaſy to imitate his ſtyle." "And, indeed, (ſay the French reviewers,) we cannot here miſtake the hand and ſeal of Voltaire."—In the edition of Kehl are a number of mutilated and incorrect letters, which are reprinted in this volume, with conſiderable additions contained in the above manuſcript; the author has taken care to inſert, in notes, the various readings of the printed text, collated with the original text. A number of theſe letters were without a date, or had falſe dates. M. Boiſſonade has endeavoured, as far as poſſible, to place the real epoch to each letter. The litigation with the Jew Hirſchel, the death of the Comte de Rothembourg, the theſis of the Abbe de Prades, the affair of the Akakia, and other known facts, have guided him. This correſpondence embraces ſix or ſeven years, 1746 to 1753. This volume may be read with pleaſure even by thoſe who have the eighteen volumes of the edition of Kehl.

The celebrated Voſs, a profound connoiſſeur with regard to whatever relates to antiquity, and a writer endowed with true poetic genius, as his original works and his inimitable verſions of Homer and Virgil ſufficiently atteſt, has juſt publiſhed A proſody of his Native Tongue, the fruit of long and laborious application. No man, indeed, can be better qualified for aſcertaining the rules that relate to the mechaniſm of poetry than he; and it is much to be hoped that theſe rules, which, in fact, reſult naturally from the very genius of the language, will be adopted by the German bards in future. This book compoſes the ninth volume of the works of this admired author.

Eberhard of Halle, a philoſophical writer, well-known by his "Apology for

for Socrates," has lately enriched the literary world with a ſecond volume of his "Theory of the Belles Lettres."

A new volume (the eighth) of Tummel's Sentimental Tour through the South of France, has likewiſe juſt made its appearance. The former volumes have acquired the author a very ſplendid name in the German world; and, were they *well* tranſlated, the Engliſh reader would probably be convinced, that the admirable Sterne was leſs an *unique* than he is generally ſuppoſed to be.

The genius of Gothe is again awake! His "Eugenia; or, the Natural Daughter," which is now acting at Weimar, is a firſt-rate claſſical production; of the moſt happy ſtage effect, and in which every ſcene beſpeaks the hand of a maſter. The ſcene lies in England; the ſtory is of the preſent day, and is on that account the more intereſting. The ſubject will form three diſtinct plays, of which Eugenia is the firſt.

Kotzebue's fertile genius has lately produced two dramas, the one entitled "Grotius," and the other "The Huſſites before Naumberg." The former, indeed, has not been often acted, but the latter has repeatedly charmed the public, and ſtill continues to bring full houſes. His journal, "The Plain Dealer," which at firſt raiſed ſuch high expectations, and which ſet out ſplendidly enough, continued for a few numbers to be worthy of the title it bears. It ſoon, however, grew charged with matter, more intereſting to himſelf and to his literary enemies, than to the generality of his readers.

The Chevalier de Raſonoff, a Ruſſian counſellor of ſtate, has been appointed by the Emperor, Ambaſſador Extraordinary to the court of Japan; to which country he was ordered to proceed in the month of June. He is to be conveyed to the place of his deſtination by Captain Kruſenſtern, who, after landing the ambaſſador, will purſue his voyage of diſcovery.

POETRY.

For the Scots Magazine.

BLYTHE AND CHEARY,

A SCOTS SANG.

Tune.—*Cutty Gun.*

ON Ettrick clear there grows a brier,
An' money bonny bloomin' ſhaw:
But Peggy's grown the faireſt flow'r
The banks o' Ettrick ever ſaw.
O! ſhe's blythe! an' O! ſhe's cheerie,
O! ſhe's bonny, frank and free!
The ſtarnies bright, nae dewie night
Could ever beam like Peggy's e'e.

Her cheeks are like the roſes red;
Her e'en twa violets ſet wi' dew:
The lily's fair without compare,
Yet in her boſom tines its hue.
O! ſhe's blythe &c.

When firſt I ſaw my Peggy's face,
She was a laſſie young an' fma';
Yet ſhe appear'd wi' ſic a grace,
I kend ſhe wad excel them a'.
O! ſhe's blythe &c.

Had I as meikle goud an' gear,
As I could lift unto my knee,
Nae ither laſs but Peggy dear
Sude ever be a bride to me.
O! ſae blythe! an' O! ſae cheerie!
At our waddin' I wad be!
I'd gar the piper blaw his bags,
An' play me *Sandy o'er the lee!*

I'd tak' her to my little cot
That ſtands aneath yon mountain high,
Whar a' the day ſhe'd pop about
An' in my arms at e'enin' lye.
O! ſae blythe! an' O! ſae cheerie!
O! ſae happy we wad be!
The lammie to the ewe is dear,
But *Peggy's* dearer far to *me.*

But I may ſigh an' ſtand abeigh,
An' greet till I loſe baith my e'en;
Tho' Peggy's ſmiles my heart beguiles,
She ditna mind my love a preen.
O! I'm ſad! an' O! I'm ſorry!
Sad an' ſorry may I be,
I may be ſick an' very ſick,
But I'll be deſp'rate ſweer to dee.

Ettrick, 1803. A SHEPHERD.

For the Scots Magazine.

THE SONGS OF SELMA,

FROM OSSIAN.

HAIL ſtar of ſoft deſcending night,
Whoſe rays the glimmering weſt illume;
Diſpelling with thy chaſten'd light,
The evening's murky gloom.
Fair is thy light, when from the cloud
That caſt o'er thy fair face its ſhroud,
Thou ſhoot'ſt thy gentle beams;
When all is ſilent, calm, and ſtill,
And o'er the diſtant miſty hill,
Thy ſilvery radiance gleams.
Say lovely planet what doſt thou behold,
When from the clouds thy brilliant rays unfold.
The ſtormy winds in guſts no more,
Now ſwell along the ſtony ſhore;
The torrent's diſtant murmur hear,
Now ſweetly ſoothe the liſtening ear;
The tumult wild of ſurging waves,
The channel's rocky margin laves;
The hum of inſects in their flight,
Now charm the placid ear of night,
Ah what fair light doſt thou behold,
When hovering o'er the ocean's breaſt?
The waves embathe thy hair of gold,
When ſinking in the crimſon weſt,
Farewell thou meek enlightener of the skies!
Now let the light of Oſſian's ſoul ariſe.

Lo to my mental ſight appears,
The ſhade of my departed years,
Fancy's viſion hither ſends,
The noble deeds of long loſt friends;
Lo the warriors once again,
Gather round on Lora's plain,
Fingal comes with glory crown'd,
With all his heroes rang'd around.

And ſee in order rang'd the bards of ſong,
Ryno and Ullin venerable in years;
Alpin to whom the rapturous powers belong,
To melt the warlike heroes into tears.
Remembrance buſy power, ah why recall!
Days when we flouriſh'd now for ever paſt!
Ah deeds that thrill the aged Oſſian's ſoul,
Still freſh in memory's tablet yet are trac'd.

Minona, lovely maid, appears,
With downcaſt looks and eyes of tears,
The treſſes that her temples bind,
Now wave to the unfrequent wind;
The melting lay ſhe plaintive pours,
And grief the warriors breaſts devours,
They ſaw the place of Salgar's reſt,
Of Colma with the ſnow white breaſt,
Thus did the ſoften'd voice of Colma riſe,
When night had veil'd in ſhades the placid skies.

For the Scots Magazine.

SONG OF COLMA.

NOW dunniſh night the ſolemn ſcene invades,
And I am here invelop'd in its ſhades,
Alone I wander, while the midnight ſtorm,
Now roars aloud, and clouds the ſkies deform:
Adown the ſhaggy rocks the torrents pour,
No hut receives me from the driving ſhow'r,
Amid the gloom of ſolemn night, with dread,
The howling hill, forlorn and ſad I tread.
Riſe beauteous moon in majeſty of light,
And the dun ſhadows quickly put to flight,
In chaſter light ye glimmering ſtars ariſe,
And lead me to the place where Salgar lies:
Tir'd with the chace he's ſtretch'd along the ground,
His bow unſtrung and panting dogs around.
Ah here in ſorrow, muſt I ſit alone,
And to the moſſy ſtreamlet make my moan;
The wind now echoes thro' the ſadden'd grove,
In vain I liſten for the voice I love.
When night had thrown around her blackeſt ſhade,
To meet me here how many vows you made;
Here is the roaring ſtream, the rock, the tree,
But vain my Salgar do I call on thee;
Tho' fell contention doth our friends divide,
With thee I'd fly my parents brothers pride.

Hush

Hush thou wild wind, let all thy howling ceaſe,
And thou, oh ſtream, be ſtill'd awhile in peace;
Around the ſolemn ſcene let ſilence reign,
And my ſhrill voice be heard acroſs the plain;
Lo thro the clouds the moon beams glimmer pale,
And the flood brightens in the diſtant vale,
To the pale beam the gray rocks faintly glow,
But Salgar comes not o'er th' impending brow;
No bounding dogs before him hither ſtray,
To indicate that Salgar comes this way.
But who are theſe that lie ſo quiet here,
Is it my Salgar and my brother dear?
Alas I fear that ſtretch'd along the heath,
They ſleep for ever in the arms of death.
Oh ſpeak to me, that here ſo calmly reſt!
They anſwer not, what fears torment my breaſt!
Their ſwords are cover'd with the purple ſtain,
Oh why my brother haſt thou Salgar ſlain?
And why my Salgar has thy ſcalping ſword,
My gentle brother's heaving boſom gor'd?
Oh ſpeak to Colma, hear her voice! O hear!
Ye that to me were once alas ſo dear!
Diſtreſs'd and ſorrowful, how ſhall I raiſe,
The ſong of mourning and the ſong of praiſe,
In you ſo fair my boſom took delight,
Fair on the hills and terrible in fight;
Speak! hear my voice; no, Colma calls in vain,
For ever cloſed ſhall their lips remain!
Oh from the windy mountains ſummit ſpeak,
Say in what cave ſhall I your ſpirits ſeek,
No feeble voice ſalutes my liſtening ear,
No anſwer loſt amid the tempeſt drear.
I ſit in lonely grief half drown'd in tears.
And wait till lovely gray-ey'd morn appears;
Ye friends, bid the majeſtic tomb ariſe,
But do not cloſe it until Colma dies.
My life ſhall vaniſh like a faithleſs dream,
With my dear friends I'll reſt beſide the ſtream,
When ſolemn night ſteals ſlowly o'er the heath,
Amid the blaſt my ghoſt ſhall mourn their death;
The hunter from his lowly booth ſhall hear,
My ſoothing voice he ſhall both love and fear!

Edinburgh. R. C.

(To be Continued)

ON THE BATTLE OF HOHENLINDEN

BY THOMAS CAMPBELL,

AUTHOR OF THE PLEASURES OF HOPE.

On Linden when the ſun was low,
All bloodleſs lay th' untrodden ſnow,
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iſer rolling rapidly.

But Linden ſhew'd another ſight,
When the drum beat at dead of night,
Commanding fires of death to light
The darkneſs of her ſcenery.

By torch and trumpet-ſound array'd,
Each horſeman drew his battle-blade,
And furious every charger neigh'd,
To join the dreadful revelry.

Then ſhook the hills with thunder riven,
Then ruſh'd the ſteed to battle driven,
And volleying, like the bolts of heaven,
Far flaſh'd the red artillery.

And redder ſtill thoſe fires ſhall glow,
On Linden's hills of purpled ſnow;
And bloodier ſtill ſhall be the flow
Of Iſer rolling rapidly.

'Tis morn; but ſcarce yon level ſun
Can pierce the war-cloud rolling dun,
Where furious Frank and fiery Hun
Shout, mid' their ſulphurous canopy.

The combat deepens—on, ye brave!
Who ruſh to glory and the grave;
Wave, Munich, all thy banners wave,
And charge with all thy chivalry.

Oh! few ſhall part where many meet,
The ſnow ſhall be your winding ſheet,
And every turf beneath your feet
Shall mark the ſoldiers' cemetry.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Continued from page 348.

May 2. Lord Darnley ſaid, he had waited till this time, in hopes that his Majeſty's Miniſters would give the Houſe ſome information concerning the preſent negociation with France; and that they would relieve the country from the ſtate of doubt, anxiety, and ſuſpenſe, which it had been in ever ſince his Majeſty's meſſage was brought down to both Houſes of Parliament. He lamented extremely that the country ſhould be placed in ſuch a ſituation. It was the duty of the Houſe to call on miniſters to explain the cauſes of that delay which had unfortunately taken place; and unleſs ſome communication was made to that Houſe before Friday next, or unleſs ſome Noble Lord more competent to the taſk than himſelf would take the queſtion up, he then gave notice, that on Friday he ſhould bring forward a motion on the ſubject of the diſcuſſions that had been for ſome time carried on between this country and France.

State of the Nation.

6. Lord Pelham obſerved, that a Noble Lord then preſent had given notice of his intention to bring forward a motion on Monday next, relative to the pending negociation with France, unleſs ſome communication ſhould be previouſly made to the Houſe. No man regretted more than he did, the ſtate of ſuſpence and anxiety in which that Houſe and the country had for ſo long a time been unavoidably kept. He was at length enabled to make a communication on that important ſubject, which hitherto he could not with any propriety have touched upon; and he very much feared, that the information he had to give to the Houſe, would be as painful to thoſe who heard him, as the ſtate of ſuſpence in which they had continued for ſome paſt.—The fact he had to ſtate was this:—In conſequence of diſpatches received that morning from Paris, the Ambaſſador at our Court from the French Republic, did apply that day to his Majeſty's Miniſters for a paſſport, in order to quite this country, and return to France; and he did ſo, in conſequence of orders to that effect received from the French Government. It was ſuppoſed that Lord Whitworth, his Majeſty's Ambaſſador in Paris, would have quitted that capital. His Majeſty's Government had very lately ſent over to France a final propoſal, which he was to make to the French Government. It was expected that ſome diſpatches would have been received from his Lordſhip that day: But none were arrived: And his Majeſty's Government were ſtill uninformed on the important point, whether that Noble Lord ſtill remained at Paris, or whether he was on his return home. He felt it to be his duty to communicate theſe unpleaſant circumſtances to the Houſe; before which, the whole conduct of his Majeſty's Miniſters during the courſe of the negociation, would be ſubmitted as ſpeadily as poſſible. He expected that, in the courſe of the following day, a meſſenger would arrive with intelligence from our Ambaſſador: And if it ſhould appear that he had departed from Paris, in order to return home, he hoped he ſhould be able to lay ſome communication from his Majeſty before the Houſe on Monday next. He did not, therefore, think it neceſſary that the Houſe ſhould ſit on the following day, and particularly ſo, becauſe it would be impoſſible to make any ſatisfactory communication to their Lordſhips ſooner than Monday.—He did not, however, mean to divide the Houſe on the queſtion whether

ther their Lordſhips ſhould meet the next day or not. His Lordſhip then concluded with a motion "that this Houſe do now adjourn to Monday next."

Lord Darnley ſaid, the ſuſpence and anxiety in which the public had been kept for upwards of two months, was the moſt extraordinary and unprecedented he had ever known. He had, during the greateſt part of that time, forbore to call the attention of the Houſe to the ſubject, from an apprehenſion, that by doing ſo, he might interrupt the progreſs of the negociation, and throw ſome impediment in the way of his Majeſty's Councils; and from an expectation that ſome information would have been given by Miniſters. At length, ſeeing no hope of any ſuch communication, he did give notice of a motion for Monday next; which motion he was determined to bring forward on that day, if the Miniſter ſhould not then make the communication to the Houſe which he had juſt promiſed. In a time ſo momentuous as the preſent, he could not conſent to the Houſe adjourning over till Monday. Intelligence might be received in the courſe of the following day, of which it would be neceſſary the Houſe ſhould be informed; and the Houſe was bound, by its duty to the public, to continue ſitting from from day to day. He ſhould therefore move an amendment, that, inſtead of "Monday" the word "to-morrow" ſtand part of the motion.

The Houſe divided on the original motion Contents 29.—Non Contents 8.—Adjourned to Monday.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Continued from p. 415.

May 2. The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved, 'That the order of the day might be read for taking into conſideration ſo much of his Majeſty's moſt gracious ſpeech to both Houſes, on the 2d of November laſt, in ſo far as related to mercantile tranſactions.' Which being read accordingly,

The Chancellor of the Exchequer ſaid, that he underſtood it to be the wiſh of many reſpectable members of the Houſe, with whom he had communicated on the ſubject, that the diſcuſſion intended to have been brought forward this day, ſhould, during the preſent uncertainty of political events, be poſtponed, until the reſult ſhould be known of the negociations now pending between Great Britain and France, as, in the event of hoſtilities, if it ſhould unhappily be the reſult, they ſhould feel no diſpoſition to oppoſe this arrangement; but, if the contrary, then they ſhould wiſh to ſtate their objections. He, for his part, was perfectly prepared to accede to this ſuggeſtion, and ſhould therefore propoſe to defer the diſcuſſion till Monday next, as, in the interval, 'he entertained ſtrong hope and expectation, that he ſhould be able to bring forward a communication,' upon a ſubject on which the public mind had been long extremely anxious, and upon which he was extremely grieved that he had not been much ſooner enabled to make ſome communication.'

Mr Shaw Lefevre obſerved, that after what had juſt fallen from the Right Hon. Gentleman oppoſite to him, he wiſhed to know, whether another Hon. Member (Mr Patten), who had given notice of a motion on the ſtate of the nation, as for to-morrow night, was ſtill determined to perſevere in bringing it forward, previous to any communication on the pending treaty?

Mr Patten ſaid, that the notice which he had juſt now heard, was extremely unexpected; he felt much embarraſſment in his own mind how to proceed, without ſome communication with other gentlemen, his friends, upon the ſubject.

Mr Fox obſerved, that ſo much time having already elapſed, in the hope that ſome communication would have come forward, and as the Right Hon. Gentleman had juſt expreſſed a 'confident hope and expectation' that he ſhould be able, in the courſe of the week, to give the Houſe ſome explanation on the ſubject, he rather ſuppoſed that the Houſe would be of opinion, that the motion of the Hon. Member would certainly be better diſcuſſed under the advantages of a communication, and that it would ſuſtain no diſadvantage from the delay of another week.

Mr Patten ſaid, he had not the leaſt deſire in bringing forward his motion on the day appointed, againſt the ſenſe of the Houſe. He thanked Gentlemen for relieving his mind from ſome embarraſſment, under the uncertainty he felt of what was beſt to be done, and cheerfully acceded to the propoſal of deferring, till ſome convenient day after the communication, the motion which he intended for to-morrow.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer's motion for Monday next was agreed to, and Mr Patten's notice ſtands *ſine die*.

Schoolmaster's Bill.

The Lord Advocate of Scotland moved the order of the day for a Committee of the whole Houſe on his motion for bettering the condition of the pariſh ſchoolmaſters of Scotland.

The Houſe reſolved itſelf into a committee, Mr William Dundas in the chair.

The Lord Advocate, previous to his ſubmitting any propoſition to the committee, thought it neceſſary to explain his reaſons for bringing this ſubject before Parliament, and to ſtate briefly the nature of the means he intended to ſubmit for the relief of the uſeful and reſpectable claſs of men which was to be object of the meaſure. Above 160 years had now elapſed ſince the firſt inſtitution of parochial ſchoolmaſters in Scotland, by act of Parliament; and ſo ſenſible was the Scotch Legiſlature of the benefit derived from their ſervices to the country, that in 1696 their numbers were augmented, and an adequate proviſion made for their ſupport. He had no heſitation in ſaying, that it was chiefly owing to the effect of this wiſe inſtitution, that the general intelligence of the people of Scotland, their ſtrict regard to morality, and punctual attendance to the duties of religion, were unexampled in any country. He could, from authentic documents, ſtate, that more convicts were ſent every year from the town of Manchester alone, than from all Scotland. When ſuch benefits were derived from the inſtitution, he felt that the members of it were juſtly entitled to ſome relief, as otherwiſe it muſt ſink into diſrepute, and perſons properly qualified would not be found for the vacancies. The *minimum* ſalary, as it now ſtood, was only 100 Scotch merks, or ſomething above 5l. ſterling; the *maximum* 200 Scotch merks, or about 11l. ſterling.

Gentlemen would readily perceive how inadequate either was to the purpoſes for which it was originally intended; and the fact was, that complaints had been made from different parts of the country within the laſt 20 years, and one third of the ſchools were vacant. He propoſed to fix a minimum allowance, which would prove adequate to the ſupport of a ſchoolmaſter in caſe of old age, infirmity, or diminution of his ſchool. He did not mean to fix any conſiderable *maximum*, thinking it better to leave ſchoolmaſters in ſome meaſure dependent on their exertions in the diſcharge of their duties. The *minimum* therefore he propoſed ſhould be fixed at three hundred Scotch merks, or about 16l. Sterling, the *maximum*, except in particular caſes, only 400 merks, or about 22l.; a ſum ſcarcely equal to the average hire of a day labourer. The Learned Advocate went into a review of the ſalaries, and ſubmitted the propriety of having them regulated in the different diſtricts, according to the price of oatmeal, and paid out of the Exchequer of Scotland. He alſo propoſed that different ſchool houſes ſhould be erected in the large pariſhes, and that a ſentence of excommunication ſhould diſqualify for the office of ſchoolmaſter. He concluded by moving, that it be the opinion of the Committee, that the Houſe be moved for leave given to bring in a bill, &c. Leave given.

State of the Nation.

6. The Chancellor of the Exchequer roſe. The purpoſe for which he now addreſſed the Chair was to move, that the Houſe ſhould adjourn till Monday next. He expected, he ſaid, to be authoriſed to make, on that day, a communication to the Houſe from his Majeſty. Although he could not now anticipate the purport of that communication, he would not deny, that it might probably intimate the fruitleſs termination of the attempt, amicably to adjuſt the difficulties which were known to have ariſen in the intercourſe between this country and France. General Andreoſſi had, he ſaid, this day applied to the Foreign Secretary of State, for paſſports, in order to his departure from

from this country, as ſoon as he ſhould have certain information that Lord Whitworth had left Paris. Lord Whitworth had, ſome time ſince, orders to leave Paris, by a certain day, if he ſhould not previouſly obtain the required ſatisfaction upon the points in diſpute. It was not for the preſent neceſſary to ſpecify either the time at which thoſe orders were ſent, or the day that was fixed for his Lordſhip to take his departure. His Majeſty's Miniſters had no accounts that Lord Whitworth had actually quitted Paris. But he did think it highly probable, that his Lordſhip might have taken his departure from that capital on Tueſday evening, or Wedneſday morning laſt. Whatever might be the fact, it was not to be expected, that in conſequence, whether of freſh diſpatches, or of Lord Whitworth's return, any communication could be ready to be made from his Majeſty to the Houſe, ſooner than Monday next. In theſe circumſtances, he was perſuaded, that the Houſe would agree with him in the propriety of a reſolution for adjournment to that day.

Mr Fox ſaid, that at ſuch a period as this he could not reconcile his mind to the idea of an adjournment, by which one hour might be loſt to the ſtrong neceſſities of the public buſineſs. He thought it poſſible that, if not by diſpatches from Lord Whitworth, moſt probably by his Lordſhip's arrival, this evening or to-morrow morning, Miniſters might have it in their power to make ſome communication to the Houſe if it ſhould ſit to-morrow. Upon the chance of ſuch a communication, the Members of the Houſe would not think it too much to appear to morrow in their places. As the ſubſequent meaſures of Government muſt greatly depend upon what ſhould be the proceedings of the Houſe after the intended communication ſhould have been made to it; two whole days ought certainly, at ſuch a criſis, not to be loſt.

Lord Hawkeſbury did not think that there aroſe any neceſſity for the Houſe to ſit on an unuſual day, in conſequence of the circumſtances which were ſtated in propoſing the motion for adjournment. He did not think that any communication could be made from his Majeſty to the Houſe, till it ſhould be known that Lord Whitworth had actually arrived.

Several other gentlemen ſpoke; after which the Houſe adjourned till Monday.

ABSTRACT OF THE PAPERS

PRESENTED BY HIS MAJESTY'S COMMAND TO BOTH HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, *May* 18. 1803.

Concluded from page 425.

No 23. Letter from Lord Hawkeſbury to Lord Whitworth, imputing the declaration of General Stuart to Colonel Sebaſtiani, of his inability to evacuate Egypt, to his having been miſled in ſuppoſing, that it was requiſite he ſhould receive a warrant for the purpoſe; and ſtating that orders ſhould be immediately ſent to General Stuart to remove the King's troops with as little delay as poſſible.

No 24. and 25. Extract of diſpatches from Lord St Helen's, at St Peterſburgh, dated July 20th and Auguſt 3. ſaying, he cannot effectually apply for the guarantee of Ruſſia to Malta, as the

the French Miniſter has received no inſtructions to join in ſuch an application.

No 26. Mr Paget, our Miniſter at Vienna, (July 15), applies for the guarantee of Auſtria to Malta. The French Miniſter Champigny joins him in his application, at the ſolicitation, as he ſays, of Mr Paget, having received no inſtructions from his Court, but well knowing its wiſh to fulfil the treaty of Amiens.

No 27. The Emperor of Germany's acceſſion to the guarantee of Malta, dated Auguſt 20.

No 28. 29. and 30. Difficulties of making the French Miniſter join in applying to the Court of Berlin for the guarantee of Malta. That Court ſays it is countenanced by the example of Spain in withholding its guarantee.

No 32. 33. and 34. Ruſſia agrees to guarantee on certain conditions.

No 35.—Paris, Jan. 27, 1803.

"My Lord, I have to report to your Lordſhip the purport of a converſation I had on Tueſday laſt, by appointment, with M. Talleyrand. He had invited me ſome days ago for this purpoſe. The communication he had to make to me related to two points, both equally important, as he ſaid, to the maintenance of good harmony between the two countries; with this difference, however, that the one originated with himſelf, and was dictated by his anxiety to do away every thing which might feed the mutual irritation of the two countries —and the other by the expreſs order of the Firſt Conſul. That which came from himſelf related to the Engliſh newſpapers, againſt which he pronounced a moſt bitter Philippic, aſſuring me that the Firſt Conſul was extreemly hurt to find that his endeavours to conciliate had hitherto produced no other effect than to increaſe the abuſe with which the papers in England continually loaded him. He expatiated much upon this topic, and endeavoured to eſtabliſh a fact, which I aſſured him a reference to any newſpaper in Paris would inſtantly refute, that during four months not a word of provocation had appeared in any French journal, which could juſtify a retort from thoſe publiſhed in England. For the reſt, he advanced nothing but what has been ſaid on more then one occaſion to Mr Merry, and reported by him to your Lordſhip. I was however given to underſtand, that the Firſt Conſul was in fact highly incenſed, and the more ſo, he was pleaſed to ſay, as it came from a country of whoſe good opinion he was ſo very ambitious.

"In my reply, I could but go over the old ground, and endeavour to make M. Talleyrand underſtand—firſt, That whatever was ſaid in the Engliſh papers might be conſidered but as a national retaliation for what was publiſhed in the French papers. Secondly That what was officially publiſhed here, was by no means ſo in England; —and thirdly, That although the Government poſſeſſed a controul over the preſs in France, the Engliſh neither had, nor could have, unleſs they purchaſed it at the ſame price, any whatever in England. Upon this he endeavoured to prove to me, that there were papers in England attached to different parties, and went over their names and ſuppoſed connections with great preciſion; and that conſequently his Majeſty's Miniſters might ſo far controul thoſe at leaſt which depended upon them, as to prevent their inſerting that abuſe which muſt be conſidered as having their ſanction. I endeavoured to explain to him what the influence was, which he ſuppoſed Miniſters to poſſeſs in England; that it amounted to nothing more than a preference which your Lordſhip, for inſtance, might give to one paper rather than another, by ſending to it any articles of news which it might be neceſſary to make public; but that your Lordſhip's influence went no further; and that if the editor of ſuch a paper conceived it more for his intereſt to continue to write after his own fancy and uncontrouled, than to be publiſher of ſuch occaſional articles, in that caſe all influence was at an end. I told him, that if he had remarked any abuſive article in any paper of ſuch a deſcription, it was natural and fair to conclude, that it did not depend upon Government to prevent it. He perſiſted in his opinion, that his Majeſty's Miniſters might keep certain papers in order, as I did in aſſuring him, that until the Firſt Conſul could ſo far maſter his feelings as to be as indiffe-

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rent to the ſcurrility of the Engliſh prints, as the Engliſh Government was to that which daily appeared in the French, this ſtate of irritation was irremediable. I told him, however, that I would report the ſubſtance of this communication to your Lordſhip, although I aſſured him that your Lordſhip could add nothing to the explanation which had been given, and in ſuch detail, by Mr Merry, from your Lordſhip.

"M. Talleyrand, with great ſolemnity, required of me to inform him, and this by expreſs order of the Firſt Conſul, what were his Majeſty's intentions with regard to the evacuation of Malta? He again on this occaſion made great profeſſions of his ſincere deſire to ſet aſide every thing which could interrupt the good underſtanding between the two Governments; adding, that it was abſolutely neceſſary that the French Government ſhould know what it meant to do, when the clauſe in the treaty of Amiens, which ſtipulates the ceſſion of Malta, ſhould be fully accompliſhed. He ſaid that another Grand Maſter would now very ſoon be elected; that all the powers of Europe invited ſo to do, with the exception of Ruſſia, whoſe difficulties it was eaſy to remove, and without whom the guarantee would be equally complete, were ready to come forward; and that conſequently the term would very ſoon arrive, when Great Britain could have no pretext for keeping longer poſſeſſion. I informed him that I would report his converſation to your Lordſhip, and would have the honour of communicating to him your Lordſhip's anſwer as ſoon as I could receive it,

"I have the honour to be &.

"WHITWORTH."

Right Hon. Lord Hawkeſbury.

No 36. A letter from Lord Hawkeſbury to Lord Whitworth, ſtating, that although the treaty could only be made with regard to the actual ſtate of the two countries; and although we could have juſtly claimed an equivalent for the ſubſequent acquiſions of France, yet our Government would have waved theſe conſiderations, and have proceeded to the fulfilment of every article of the treaty, had not their attention been attracted by the report of Sebaſtiani; which could only be conſidered as an official document. Lord Whitworth is deſired to require explanation on this report.

No 37. A converſation on the above ſubject between Talleyrand and Lord Whitworth the ſubſtance of which is fully explained in

No 38.

Lord Whitworth to Lord Hawkesbury.

My Lord, *Paris, Feb. 21, 1803.*

My laſt diſpatch of the 17th, in which I gave your Lordſhip an account of my conference with M. de Talleyrand, was ſcarcely gone, when I received a note from him, informing me that the Firſt Conſul wiſhed to converſe with me, and deſired I would come to him at the Thuilleries at nine o'clock. He received me with tolerable cordiality, and, after talking on different ſubjects for a few minutes, he deſired me to ſit down, as he himſelf did on the other ſide of the table, and began. He told me, that he felt it neceſſary, after what had paſſed between me and M. de Talleyrand, that he ſhould, in the moſt clear and authentic manner, make known his ſentiments to me, in order to their being communicated to his Majeſty; and he conceived this would be more effectually done by himſelf than through any medium whatever. He ſaid, that it was a matter of infinite diſappointment to to him, that the Treaty of Amiens, inſtead of being followed by conciliation and friendſhip, the natural effects of peace, had been productive only of continual and increaſing jealouſy and miſtruſt; and that this miſtruſt was now avowed in ſuch a manner as muſt bring the point to an iſſue.

He now enumerated the ſeveral provocations which he pretended to have received from England. He placed in the firſt line our not evacuating Malta and Alexandria, as we were bound to do by treaty. In this he ſaid that no conſideration on earth ſhould make him acquieſce; and of the two, he had rather ſee us in poſſeſſion of the Fauxbourg St Antoine than Malta. He then adverted to the abuſe thrown out againſt him in the Engliſh public prints; but this he ſaid he did not ſo much regard as that which appeared in the French papers publiſhed in London. This he conſidered as much more miſchievous, ſince it

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was meant to excite this country againſt him and his government. He complained of the protection given to Georges and others of his deſcription, who, inſtead of being ſent to Canada, as had been repeatedly promiſed, were permitted to remain in England, handſomely penſioned, and conſtantly committing all ſorts of crimes on the coaſts of France, as well as in the interior. In confirmation of this he told me, that two men had within theſe few days been apprehended in Normandy, and were now on their way to Paris, who were hired aſſaſſins, and employed by the Biſhop of Arras, by the Baron de Rolle, by Georges, and by Dutheil, as would be fully proved in a court of juſtice, and made known to the world.

He acknowledged, that the irritation he felt againſt England increaſed daily, becauſe every wind (I make uſe as much as I can of his own ideas and expreſſions) which blew from England brought nothing but enmity and hatred againſt him.

He now went back to Egypt, and told me, that if he had felt the ſmalleſt inclination to take poſſeſſion of it by force, he might have done it a month ago, by ſending twenty-five thouſand men to Aboukir, who would have poſſeſſed themſelves of the whole country in defiance of the four thouſand Britiſh in Alexandria. That inſtead of that garriſon being a means of protecting Egypt, it was only furniſhing him with a pretence for invading it. "This he ſhould not do, whatever might be his deſire to have it as a colony, becauſe he did not think it worth the riſk of a war, in which he might, perhaps, be conſidered as the aggreſſor, and by which he ſhould loſe more than he could gain, ſince ſooner or latter Egypt would belong to France, either by the falling to pieces of the Turkiſh empire, or by ſome arrangement with the Porte."

As a proof of his deſire to maintain peace, he wiſhed to know what he had to gain by going to war with England. A deſcent was the only means of offence he had, and that he was determined to attempt, by putting himſelf at the head of the expedition. But how could it be ſuppoſed, that after having gained the height on which he ſtood, he would riſk his life and reputation in ſuch a hazardous attempt, unleſs forced to it by neceſſity, when the chances were, that he and the greateſt part of the expedition would go to the bottom of the ſea? He talked much on this ſubject, but never affected to diminiſh the danger. He acknowledged that there were one hundred chances to one againſt him; but ſtill he was determined to attempt it, if war ſhould be the conſequence of the preſent diſcuſſion; and that ſuch was the diſpoſition of the troops, that army after army would be found for the enterpriſe.

He then expatiated much on the natural force of the two countries. France with an army of four hundred and eighty thouſand men, for to this amount it is, he ſaid, "to be immediately completed, all ready for the moſt deſperate enterpriſes; and England with a fleet that made her miſtreſs of the ſeas, and which he did not think he ſhould be able to imitate in leſs than ten years: two ſuch countries, by a proper underſtanding, might govern the world, but by their ſtrifes might overturn it. He ſaid, that if he had not felt the enmity of the Britiſh government on every occaſion ſince the treaty of Amiens, there would have been nothing that he would not have done to prove his deſire to conciliate; participation in indemnities as well as influence on the continent; treaties of commerce, in ſhort, any thing that could have given ſatisfaction; and have teſtified his friendſhip. Nothing, however, had been able to conquer the hatred of the Britiſh government, and therefore it was now come to the point, whether we ſhould have peace or war. To preſerve peace, the treaty of Amiens muſt be fulfilled; the abuſe in the public prints, if not totally ſuppreſſed, at leaſt kept within bounds, and confined to the Engliſh papers; and the protection ſo openly given to his bitteреſt enemies (alluding to Georges and perſons of that deſcription), muſt be withdrawn. If war, it was neceſſary only to ſay ſo, and to refuſe to fulfil the treaty. He now made the tour of Europe, to prove to me, that, in its preſent ſtate, there was no power with which we could coaleſce for the purpoſe of making war againſt France; conſequently it was our intereſt to gain time, and if we had any point to gain, renew the war when circumſtances were more favourable. He ſaid, it was not doing him juſtice to ſuppoſe, that he conceived himſelf above the opinion of his

his country or of Europe. He would not risk uniting Europe against him by any violent act of aggression; neither was he so powerful in France as to persuade the nation to go to war unless on good grounds. He said, that he had not chastised the Algerines from his unwillingness to excite the jealousy of other powers, but he hoped that England, Russia, and France would one day feel that it was their interest to destroy such a nest of thieves, and force them to live rather by cultivating their land than by plunder.

In the little I said to him, for he gave me in the course of two hours but very few opportunities of saying a word, I confined myself strictly to the tenour of your Lordship's instructions. I urged them in the same manner as I had done before to M. de Talleyrand, and dwelt as strongly as I could on the sensation which the publication of Sebastiani's Report had created in England, where the views of France towards Egypt must always command the utmost vigilance and jealousy. He maintained, that what ought to convince us of his desire of peace, was, on the one hand, the little he had to gain by renewing the war, and, on the other, the facility with which he might have taken possession of Egypt with the very ships and troops which were now going from the Mediterranean to St Domingo, and that with the approbation of all Europe, and more particularly of the Turks, who had repeatedly invited him to join with them, for the purpose of forcing us to evacuate their territory.

I do not pretend to follow the arguments of the First Consul in detail; this would be impossible, from the vast variety of matter which he took occasion to introduce. His purpose was evidently to convince me, that on Malta must depend peace or war, and at the same time to impress upon my mind a strong idea of the means he possessed of annoying us both at home and abroad.

With regard to the mistrust and jealousy which he said constantly prevailed since the conclusion of the treaty of Amiens, I observed, that after a war of such long duration, so full of rancour, and carried on in a manner of which history has no example, it was but natural that a considerable degree of agitation should prevail; but this, like the swell after a storm, would gradually subside, if not kept up by the policy of either party; that I would not pretend to pronounce which had been the aggressor in the paper war of which he complained, and which was still kept up, though with this difference, that in England it was independent of Government, and in France its very act and deed. To this I added, that it must be admitted that we had such motives of mistrust against France as could not be alledged against us; and I was going to instance the accession of territory and influence gained by France since the treaty, when he interrupted me by saying, I suppose you mean Piedmont and Switzerland; "ce sont des bagatelles:" and it must have been foreseen whilst the negociation was pending; "vous n'avez pas le droit d'en parler à cette heure." I then alledged as a cause of mistrust and jealousy, the impossibility of obtaining justice, or any kind of redress, for any of his Majesty's subjects. He asked me in what respect: and I told him, that since the signing of the treaty not one British claimant had been satisfied, although every Frenchman of that description had been so within one month after that period; and that since I had been here, and I could say as much of my predecessors, not one satisfactory answer had been obtained to the innumerable representations which we had been under the necessity of making in favour of British subjects and property detained in the several ports of France and elsewhere, without even a shadow of justice: such an order of things, I said, was not made to inspire confidence; but, on the contrary, must create mistrust. This, he said, must be attributed to the natural difficulties attending such suits, when both parties thought themselves right; but he denied that such delays could proceed from any disinclination to do what was just and right. With regard to the pensions which were granted to French or Swiss individuals, I observed that they were given as a reward for past services during the war, and most certainly not for present ones, and still less for such as had been insinuated, of a nature repugnant to the feelings of every individual in England, and to the universally acknowledged loyalty and honour of the British Government. That as for any participation of indemnities or other

acceſſion which his Majeſty might have obtained, I could take upon myſelf to aſſure him, that his Majeſty's ambition led him rather to preſerve than to acquire. And that, with regard to the moſt propitious moment for renewing hoſtilities, his Majeſty, whoſe ſincere deſire it was to continue the bleſſings of peace to his ſubjects, would always conſider ſuch a meaſure as the greateſt calamity; but that, if his Majeſty was ſo deſirous of peace, it muſt not be imputed to the difficulty of obtaining allies; and the leſs ſo, as thoſe means which it might be neceſſary to afford ſuch allies, for perhaps inadequate ſervices, would all be concentrated in England, and give a proportionate increaſe of energy to our own exertions.

At this part of the converſation he roſe from his chair, and told me, that he ſhould give orders to General Andreoſſi to enter on the diſcuſſion of this buſineſs with your Lordſhip; but he wiſhed that I ſhould at the ſame time be made acquainted with his motives, and be convinced of his ſincerity, rather from himſelf than from his Miniſters. He then, after a converſation of two hours, during the greateſt part of which he talked inceſſantly, converſed for a few moments on indifferent ſubjects, in apparent good humour, and retired.

Such was nearly, as I can recollect, the purport of this conference.

It muſt however be obſerved, that he did not, as M. Talleyrand had done, affect to attribute Colonel Sebaſtiani's miſſion "to commercial motives only," but as one rendered neceſſary, in a military point of view, by the infraction by us of the treaty of Amiens.

WHITWORTH.

P. S. This converſation took place on Friday laſt, and this morning I ſaw M. de Talleyrand. He had been with the Firſt Conſul after I left him, and he aſſured me that he had been very well ſatisfied with the frankneſs with which I had made my obſervations on what fell from him. I told him, that without entering into any farther detail, what I had ſaid to the Firſt Conſul amounted to an aſſurance, of what I truſted there could be no doubt, of the readineſs of his Majeſty's Miniſters to remove all ſubjects of diſcuſſion, where that could be done without violating the laws of the country; and to fulfil ſtrictly the engagements which they had contracted, in as much as that could be reconciled with the ſafety of the ſtate. As this applied to Malta and Egypt, he gave me to underſtand, that a project was in contemplation, by which the integrity of the Turkiſh empire would be ſo effectually ſecured as to do away every cauſe of doubt or uneaſineſs, either with regard to Egypt or any part of the Turkiſh dominions. He could not then, he ſaid, explain himſelf farther. Under theſe circumſtances, no one can expect that we ſhould relinquiſh that aſſurance which we have in hand, till ſomething equally ſatisfactory is propoſed and adopted.

No. 39. Lord Hawekſbury declares his Majeſty's approbation of Lord Whitworth's conduct, and as inſtructions for his future converſations obſerves, that with regard to that article of the treaty which relates to Malta, the ſtipulations contained in it (owing to circumſtances which it was not in the power of his Majeſty to controul), have not been found capable of execution. The refuſal of Ruſſia to accede to the arrangement, except on condition that the Malteſe Langue ſhould be aboliſhed; the ſilence of the Court of Berlin with reſpect to the invitation that has been made to it, in conſequence of the treaty, to become a guaranteeing power;—the abolition of the Spaniſh priories, in defiance of the treaty to which the King of Spain was a party;—the declaration of the Portuguese Government of their intention to ſequeſtrate the property of the Portugueſe priory, as forming a part of the Spaniſh Langue, unleſs the property of the Spaniſh priories is reſtored to them;—the non-election of a Grand Maſter—Theſe circumſtances would have been ſufficient, without any other ſpecial ground, to have warranted his Majeſty in ſuſpending the evacuation of the iſland, until ſome new arrangement could be adjuſted for its ſecurity and independence. But that the vaſt increaſe of the French dominions ſince the concluſion of the treaty, and in particular, their views with regard to the Turkiſh dominions, and the iſlands in the Adriatic, render more ſecurities neceſſary.

No. 40. Lord Whitworth (Paris, March 5), urges to Talleyrand the contents of Lord Hawkeſbury's letter. Both

Both theſe reiterate the arguments about Malta, &c.

No. 41. A note from M. Andreoſſi, demanding the evacuation of Malta, in the ſame manner as the French troops had already evacuated the Neapolitan and Papal States.

No. XLII.

Letter from Lord Whitworth to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Paris, March 11. Lord Whitworth had juſt been appriſed of the King's meſſage—his Lordſhip ſays.

"I found, however, on going to M. de Talleyrand, at two o'clock, that he was already informed of it. He was juſt ſetting out to communicate it to the Firſt Conſul, and appeared under conſiderable agitation. He returned with me to his cabinet, and though he told me he was preſſed for time, he ſuffered me to relate the circumſtances without interruption. I endeavoured to make him ſenſible that this meaſure was merely precautionary, and not in the leaſt degree intended as a menace I concluded my obſervations by repeating, that it was merely a meaſure of ſelf-ſecurity, founded on the armaments which were carrying on in the ports of France and Holland, remarking at the ſame time, that had not even theſe armaments been as notorious as they were, the very circumſtance of the Firſt Conſul's determination to augment ſo conſiderably his army in time of peace, would have been a full and ſufficient motive for ſuch a meaſure of precaution.

M. de Talleyrand now informed me he was already acquainted with the buſineſs: that a meſſenger had that morning arrived, who had brought him a copy of the meſſage, which he communicated to me. I could draw from him no reply to my obſervations. He confined himſelf ſtrictly to the aſſurance which he has ſo repeatedly made, that there was no foundation whatever for the alarm which was felt by his Majeſty's Miniſters; that the Firſt Conſul was pacific; that he had no thoughts whatever of attacking his Majeſty's dominions, unleſs forced to do ſo by a commencement of hoſtilities on our part; that he ſhould always conſider the *refuſal to evacuate Malta as ſuch a commencement of hoſtilities*; and that, as we had hitherto heſitated to do ſo, he was juſtified in adopting the meaſures which might eventually be neceſſary. He diſclaimed every idea of the armaments fitting out in the Dutch ports having any other deſtination than to the colonies, and concluded that, for his part, he could not comprehend the motives which had neceſſitated the reſort to ſuch a meaſure on the part of his Majeſty's Government.

"He then deſired leave to go to the Firſt Conſul, promiſing that he would let me know the reſult when we met at dinner at the Pruſſian Miniſter's. He did not come there till near ſeven o'clock, and when we roſe from dinner, he took me aſide, and informed me, that although the Firſt Conſul had been highly irritated at the unjuſt ſuſpicion which his Majeſty's Government entertained, yet he would not allow himſelf to be ſo far maſtered by his feelings, as to loſe ſight of the calamities which the preſent diſcuſſion might entail upon humanity. He dwelt much on this topic, and explained the meaſures to which he ſhould be obliged to reſort; he ſaid that if England wiſhed to diſcuſs fairly, he wiſhed the ſame; that if England prepared for war, he would do the ſame; and that if England ſhould finally determine on hoſtilities, he truſted to the ſupport of the French nation in the war of honour and of juſtice. It was in vain that I repeated that England did not wiſh for war; that peace was as neceſſary to us as it could be to France; that all we deſired, and all that we were contending for, was ſecurity; that every thing proved to us that that ſecurity was threatened by the Firſt Conſul's views on Egypt: and that conſequently our refuſal to evacuate Malta, was become as much a neceſſary meaſure of precaution, as the defence of any part of his Majeſty's dominions.

Note verbal referred to in No. 42.

1. If his Britannic Majeſty, in his meſſage, means to ſpeak of the expedition of Helvoetſluys, all the world knows that it was deſtined for America, and that it was on the point of ſailing for its deſtination, but in conſequence of his Majeſty's meſſage the embarkation and putting to ſea are about to be countermanded.

2. If we do not receive ſatisfactory explanation reſpecting theſe armaments in England, and if they actually take

place, *It is natural* that the Firſt Conſul ſhould march 20,000 men into Holland, ſince Holland is mentioned in the meſſage.

3. Theſe troops being once in the country, *it is natural* that an encampment ſhould be formed on the frontiers of Hanover; and, moreover, that additional bodies ſhould join thoſe troops which were already embarked for America, in order to form new embarkations, and to maintain an offenſive and defenſive poſition.

4. *It is natural* that the Firſt Conſul ſhould order ſeveral camps to be formed at Calais, and on different points of the coaſts.

5. It is likewiſe *in the nature of things*, that the Firſt Conſul, who was on the point of evacuating Switzerland, ſhould be under the neceſſity of continuing a French army in that country.

6. It is alſo *the natural conſequence of all this*, that the Firſt Conſul ſhould ſend a freſh force into Italy, in order to occupy, in caſe of neceſſity, the poſition of Tarentum.

7. England arming, and arming with ſo much publicity, will compel France to put her armies on the war eſtabliſhment; a ſtep ſo important, as cannot fail to agitate all Europe.

The reſult of all theſe movements will be to irritate the two countries ſtill more. France will have been compelled to take all theſe precautions, in conſequence of the Engliſh armaments, and, nevertheleſs, every means will be taken to excite the Engliſh nation, by the aſſertion, that France meditates an invaſion. The whole Britiſh population will be obliged to put themſelves under arms for their defence, and their export trade will, even before the war, be in a ſtate of ſtagnation throughout the whole extent of the countries occupied by the French arms.

The experience of nations, and the courſe of events prove, that the diſtance between ſuch a ſtate of things and actual hoſtility, is unfortunately not remote.

As to the differences, of which mention is made in his Britannic Majeſty's meſſage, we know not of any that we have with England; for it cannot be imagined, that a ſerious intention can have exiſted in England of evading the execution of the treaty of Amiens, under the protection of a military armament. Europe well knows that it is poſſible to attempt the diſmemberment of France, but not to intimidate her.

No XLIII. *Paris, March* 14, 1803.

"My Lord—The meſſenger Maſon went on Saturday with my diſpatches of that date, and until yeſterday, Sunday, I ſaw no one likely to give me any further information, ſuch as I could depend upon, as to the effect which his Majeſty's meſſage had produced on the Firſt Conſul. At the Court which was held at the Thuilleries upon that day, he accoſted me evidently under very conſiderable agitation. He began by aſking me if I had any news from England. I told him I had received letters from your Lordſhip two days ago. He immediately ſaid, and ſo you are determined to go to war. No! I replied, we are too ſenſible of the advantages of peace. —'Nous avons, ſaid he, déjà fait la guerre pendant quinze ans.'—As he ſeemed to wait for an anſwer, I obſerved only, 'C'en eſt déjà trop.' 'Mais, ſaid he, vous voulez la faire encore quinze années, et vous m'y forçez.'—I told him that was very far from his Majeſty's intentions.—He then proceeded to Count Marcow and the Chevalier Azara, who were ſtanding at a little diſtance from me, and ſaid to them, 'Les Anglois veulent la guerre, mais s'ils ſont les premieres à tirer l'epée, je ſerai le dernier à la remettre. Ils ne reſpectant pas les traités. Il faut dorénavant les couvrir de crepe noir.' He then went his round. In a few minutes he came back to me, and reſumed the converſation, if ſuch it can be called, by ſomething perſonally civil to me. He began again.—'Pourquoi des armèmens? Contre qui des meſures de precaution? Je n'ai pas un ſeul vaiſſeu de ligne dans les ports de France; mais ſi vous voulez armer, j'armerai auſſi; ſi vous voulez vous battre, je me battrai auſſi. Vous pourrez peut-être tuer la France, mais jamais l'intimider.'—'On ne voudroit, ſaid I, ni l'un ni l'autre. On voudroit vivre en bonne intelligence avec elle.' Il faut done reſpecter les traites, replied he; Malheur à ceux qui ne reſpectent pas les traités; ils en ſeront reſponſable à toute l'Europe.'—He was too much agitated to make it adviſeable for me to prolong the converſation; I there-

I therefore made no anſwer, and he retired to his apartment, repeating the laſt phraſe.

"It is to be remarked that all this paſſed loud enough to be overheard by two hundred people who were preſent, and I am perſuaded that there was not a ſingle perſon, who did not feel the extreme impropriety of his conduct, and the total want of dignity, as well as of decency, on this occaſion.

"I propoſe taking the firſt opportunity of ſpeaking to M. Talleyrand on this ſubject. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) "WHITWORTH."

"*Rt. Hon. Ld. Hawkesbury*," *&c.*

No 44. is a letter from Lord Hawkeſbury to Lord Whitworth, dated March 15, incloſing a note, No 45, in which he dwells upon Sebaſtiani's miſſion, and enforces the doctrine, 'that his Majeſty ſhould keep a compenſation out of his conqueſts for the important acquiſition of territory made by France upon the Continent."

No 46. is a letter from Lord Whitworth to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Paris, March 17, in which he ſays, in anſwer to his complaint of the treatment which he had received the preceding Sunday at the Thuillieries: "M. de Talleyrand aſſured me, that it was very far from the Firſt Conſul's intention to diſtreſs me; but he had felt himſelf perſonally inſulted by the charges which were brought againſt him by the Engliſh Government; and that it was incumbent upon him to take the firſt opportunity of exculpating himſelf, in the preſence of the miniſters of the different Powers of Europe.'

No 48. is a letter from Lord Hawkeſbury to Lord Whitworth, relative to the behaviour of the Firſt Conſul, on Sunday, at the Thuilleries, in which he ſays, "It will be impoſſible for you to preſent yourſelf on any days of ceremony to the Firſt Conſul, unleſs you receive an aſſurance that you will never be expoſed to a repetition of the treatment which you experienced on that occaſion."

No 49. is a letter from the ſame to the ſame, incloſing a note of Gen. Andreoſſi, as follows:

The underſigned General of Diviſion, Ambaſſador and Miniſter Plenipotentiary from the French Republic, has laid before his Government the note addreſſed to him by his Excellency Lord Hawkeſbury. He has received orders to make the following anſwer to the obſervations therein contained.

The object of this note appears to be to explain his Britannic Majeſty's meſſage; and to give ſome elucidations which had been demanded reſpecting the execution of the treaty of Amiens.

The Firſt Conſul will not make any complaint relative to the extraordinary and unexpected aſſertions of this act iſſued by his Britannic Majeſty. Not one of them is founded.

His Britannic Majeſty believes that his kingdom is menaced by preparations made in the ports of Holland and France. He has been deceived: the Firſt Conſul has made no preparations.

There were, at the time of the meſſage, but two frigates in the roads of Holland, and but three corvettes in the road of Dunkirk.

How can his Britannic Majeſty's Miniſters have been deceived on facts ſo evident? His Britannic Majeſty's Ambaſſadors at Paris, and at the Hague, have ſeriouſly to reproach themſelves, if they have credited information ſo evidently falſe, and if they did not foreſee that they thereby expoſed their government to err in the moſt important deliberations.

Was it not conformable to the uſage practiſed among nations, firſt to demand explanations, and thus to take means for being convinced of the falſehood of the intelligence which the Miniſters might have received? Muſt not the leaſt effects of the omiſſion of this cuſtom be, to bring on the ruin of families, and carry confuſion, uncertainty, and diſorder into all the commercial affairs of both nations? The Firſt Conſul knows, both from his own ſentiments, and judging of other people by the French, that a great nation can never be terrified. He believes that good policy, and the feelings of true dignity, ever inſpire the ſentiment of eſteem for a rival nation, and never the deſign of menacing her. A great nation may be deſtroyed, but not intimidated.

The ſecond part of his Majeſty's meſſage conſiſts of another aſſertion no better founded.

His Britannic Majeſty makes mention of diſcuſſions, the ſucceſs of which is doubtful

doubtful. What are theſe diſcuſſions? What official notes, what protocole prove the opening, the progreſs, the viciſſitudes of a debate? Can a ſtate of difficulties, which leads to an alternative of peace or war, ſpring up unawares, without commencement, without progreſſion, and lead without diſtinction, to an appeal to arms, before all the means of conciliation have been exhauſted.

In this caſe, the appeal has been publicly made, before it could be known that there was room for miſunderſtanding. The termination of the diſcuſſions was announced before they had begun. The iſſue of a difficult diſcuſſion has been declared before it aroſe. What would Europe, what would both nations think, if they knew that theſe diſcuſſions, announced by his Britannic Majeſty as ſo difficult to terminate, were unknown to the French Government; and that the Firſt Conſul, on reading the meſſage, could not comprehend the meaning of either of the declarations therein contained.

He has alſo abſtained from any oſtenſible ſtep; and whatever may have been the clamour, the activity, the provocations of war, which have taken place in England ſince that meſſage, he has given no orders, he has made no diſpoſitions, no preparations. He places his glory in an affair of this nature, wholly in being taken in an unprovided ſtate. He will continue in this ſyſtem of honeſt frankneſs, until his Britannic Majeſty has reflected fully on the part he propoſes to take.

In Lord Hawkeſbury's note, an opinion is expreſſed, that the French Republic has increaſed in power ſince the peace of Amiens. This is a decided error. Since that epoch, France has evacuated a conſiderable territory. The French power has received no degree of augmentation. If his Britannic Majeſty is determined to make war, he may allege all the pretexts he pleaſes. He will find few leſs founded.

As to the complaints made reſpecting the publications which may have appeared in France, they are of an order too ſecondary to be capable of influencing ſuch a deciſion. Are we then returned to the age of tournaments? Motives of this nature might have authoriſed, four ceturies ago, the combat of Thirties; but they cannot, in this age, be a reaſon of war between the two countries.

It might ſuffice in this reſpect, to reply to his Excellency, that no repreſentation has been made by him on the ſubject to the Government of the Republic; and that, if it was but juſtice to grant ſatisfaction, the Firſt Conſul had a right to expect that, which was required by M. Otto, in his note of the 22d Thermidor laſt, upon grounds more ſerious and more juſt.

Is it poſſible that the Engliſh Miniſtry can have been ignorant, that ever ſince the concluſion of the treaty of Amiens, the Engliſh preſs has not ceaſed to ſpread, through Europe, the rage of war, the diſcredit of peace, and ſhameleſs and boundleſs outrages againſt every thing which is the object of the love and veneration of the French people?

A few days after the ratification of peace, one of his Britannic Majeſty's Miniſters declared, that the peace eſtabliſhment muſt be conſiderable; and the diſtruſt excited by this declaration, made in Parliament with as much bitterneſs as impropriety, furniſhed a commentary for the exaggeration and alarms which were circulated in deſpicable pamphlets, and in newſpapers as contemptible as thoſe libels. Since that time, theſe writers have found themſelves invariably ſupported in their inſolent obſervations by particular phraſes taken from the ſpeeches of ſome leading members of parliament. Theſe ſpeeches, ſcarcely to be exceeded by the news-writers themſelves, have, for theſe eighteen months, tended to encourage inſults againſt other Governments to that degree, that every European muſt be offended, and every reaſonable Engliſhman muſt be humiliated by ſuch unheard of licentiouſneſs.

What, if we connect with theſe ſallies, proceedings more offenſive and ſerious; the indulgence granted to French criminals, publiſhing daily outrages in the French language; the ſtill more inexcuſable toleration extended to villains, covered with crimes, and plotting aſſaſſinations inceſſantly, ſuch as Georges, who ſtill continues to reſide at London, protected, and having a conſiderable eſtabliſhment; in a word, the little juſtice which has been ſhewn to all our repreſentations?—How are we to account for the publicity of the com-

complaint which his Britannic Majeſty has thought proper to make reſpecting ſome indefinite wrongs, which he has hitherto thought unneceſſary to make to the Firſt Conſul?

The Firſt Conſul has cauſe to be convinced, that all his repreſentations on all theſe points were uſeleſs, and that his Britannic Majeſty, regardleſs of the neighbouring powers, was reſolved to authoriſe every thing in his dominions; but he did not on that account entertain a doubt of the continuance of peace, nor alarm Europe with the notification of war. He confined himſelf to this principle of conduct, to permit or prevent in France, with reſpect to England, whatever ſhould be permitted or prevented in England, with regard to France.

He has, however, expreſſed, and he again expreſſes his wiſh, that means ſhould be adopted to prevent in future any mention being made of what is paſſing in France, either in the official diſcuſſions, or in the polemical writings in England, as in like manner in the French official diſcuſſions, and polemical writings, no mention whatever ſhould be made of what is paſſing in England.

Lord Hawkeſbury mentions an article in a newſpaper, containing the report of a French Colonel. In ſerious diſcuſſions an anſwer on this ſubject might be diſpenſed with; but it is neither a long nor difficult matter.

A Colonel in the Engliſh army has publiſhed a work in England, filled with the moſt atrocious and diſguſting calumnies againſt the French army and its General. The lies it contains have been contradicted by the reception which Colonel Sebaſtiani experienced. The publicity of his report was at once a refutation and a reparation, which the French army had a right to expect. On his arrival in Egypt, this officer, to his great aſtoniſhment, found the Engliſh army there, although they ſhould have evacuated it, and the Turks prodigiouſly alarmed at the continuance of the Engliſh army, and at its relations with the natives in rebellion and open revolt againſt the Sublime Porte.

He muſt have conceived, that the treaties which connect us with the Porte, and by which we have guaranteed to it the integrity of its poſſeſſions, compelled us to unite ourſelves with that power. It was natural to think, that England meant to declare war from the inſtant ſhe refuſed to execute the articles of the treaty. For, after all, France is not reduced to ſuch a ſtate of debaſement, as to ſuffer treaties made with her to be executed or not at pleaſure.

Hence the reſearches made by this officer, as to the forces which were in Egypt, and as to the poſition occupied by the Engliſh army.

But Egypt has ſince been reſtored to the dominion of its lawful ſovereign, and the idea of a rupture between the two nations, on account of the engagement contracted with the Porte, no longer exiſts.

There remains, therefore, but one object worthy of fixing the attention of the two nations—the execution of the treaty of Amiens, as far as concerns Malta. His Majeſty has engaged to reſtore it to the Order, and to entruſt it to the Neapolitan army till the Order ſhould be in a condition to guard it. His Majeſty will reject all ſophiſtry, every diſtinction, every mental reſervation, which might be offered to him, to put in doubt the force and the validity of his engagement. His Britannic Majeſty's equity, his conſcience, in this reſpect, are the guarantees for the French Republic. Were it otherwiſe, what means in future would the two nations have for coming to an underſtanding? Would not all be chaos? This would indeed be adding another calamity to thoſe which have menaced ſocial order.

The underſigned is directed to declare, in ſhort, that the Firſt Conſul will not take up the defiance of war given by England to France; that, as to Malta, he ſees no ſubject for diſcuſſion, the treaty having provided for every thing, and ſettled every thing.

Portland Place, March 29. 1803. F. ANDREOSSI.

Inclosure referred to in No 49.

The underſigned, his Majeſty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, has laid before the King the note of his Excellency General Andreoſſi, of the 29th of laſt month.

His Majeſty has been induced, by that ſpirit of moderation and forbearance which have invariably governed his conduct in every part of his communi-

munications with the French Government, to abſtain from making many obſervations, which the peruſal of this note may naturally have ſuggeſted to his mind.

His Majeſty has perceived, with great regret, that the French Government continue to withhold all ſatisfaction and explanation on the points on which he has complained; and at the time when they evade all diſcuſſion on the ſubject of his miſrepreſentations, they perſiſt in their requiſition, that the iſland of Malta ſhould be forthwith evacuated by his forces.

His Majeſty can never ſo far forget what is due to himſelf and to his people, as to acquieſce in ſuch a courſe of proceeding: he has, therefore, judged it expedient to give inſtructions to his Ambaſſador at Paris, to aſcertain diſtinctly from the French Government, whether they are determined to perſevere in withholding all ſatisfaction and explanation on the points on which his Majeſty has complained—or whether they are diſpoſed, without delay, to give ſuch ſatisfaction and explanations upon the preſent ſtate of affairs as may lead to an arrangement which may be calculated to adjuſt the differences at preſent ſubſiſting between the two Governments. It is his Majeſty's anxious deſire, that by this mode of proceeding an end may be put to that ſtate of ſuſpence and irritation, which muſt be ſo injurious to the intereſts of both countries; and that the two Governments, actuated by the ſame principles of juſtice and moderation, may be led to concur in ſuch meaſures as are moſt likely to conduce to their permanent tranquility. HAWKESBURY.

Downing-ſtreet, April 3, 1803.

His Excellency General Andreoſſi.

No 50. (April 4.) Lord Hawkeſbury urges Lord Whitworth to bring the negociation to a ſpeedy concluſion, as Andreoſſi's note avoids the real points in diſcuſſion. If France ſimply inſiſts on evacuating Malta, without entering into diſcuſſion, Lord Whitworth is to give notice of his departure. This note incloſes a note to the ſame effect to the French government, and the following *projet*:—

Heads of an arrangement to be concluded by treaty or convention between his Majeſty and the French Government.

Malta to remain in perpetuity in the poſſeſſion of his Majeſty.—The Knights of the order of St John to be indemnified by his Majeſty for any loſſes of property which they may ſuſtain, in conſequence of ſuch an arrangement.

Holland and Switzerland to be evacuated by the French troops.

The iſland of Elba to be confirmed by his Majeſty to France, and the King of Etruria to be acknowledged.

The Italian and Ligurian Republics to be acknowledged by his Majeſty, provided an arrangement is made in Italy for the King of Sardinia, which ſhall be ſatisfactory to him.

No 51. Lord Whitworth acknowledges the receipt of the above.

No 52. Lord Whitworth (April 7) gives an account of his interview with Talleyrand on preſenting the above *projet* and note. Talleyrand ſubſtituted the moſt groundleſs aſſertions for arguments. He promiſed to communicate the *projet* to the Chief Conſul that evening.

Incloſed is a note, in which France refuſes to do any thing contrary to the treaty of Amiens; but offers to make any convention to remove mutual grievances.

No 53. (Paris, April 9. Lord Whitworth gives an account of an interview and a long diſcuſſion with Talleyrand about Malta, which was productive of no reſult.

No 54. Lord Whitworth tells Lord H. the negociation is at a ſtand, in hopes the offer from France will bring ſomething good from London.

No 55. Lord Hawkeſbury deſires Lord W. to complain of the conduct of the French Miniſter at Hamburgh in inſerting the manifeſto in the newſpaper.

No 56. April 13. Lord Hawkeſbury to Lord W. Is happy to find France admit our right to compenſation for her extended dominion. Repeats that the execution of the treaty reſpecting Malta is become impracticable by the abolition of the langues and revenues of ſeveral of the Orders, and the refuſal of two of the great Powers to guarantee, but on particular conditions. His Majeſty may be induced to hold Malta for only ten years, then to give it to the inhabitants, not to the Order. If no hopes of this, tell Talleyrand in a ſhort time you muſt leave Paris.

No

No 57. Lord Whitworth tells that the French Miniſter blames the conduct of Rheinhardt at Hamburgh.

No 58. April 18. Lord Whitworth relates a converſation with Joſeph. He did not think Malta could be given in perpetuity, but it might be hoped for a term of years, and he would propoſe this to the Chief Conſul. This propoſal does not come from Lord Whitworth, though ſecretly authoriſed to it by Lord H.

No 59. Lord Whitworth informs his Court that Joſeph Bonaparte and Talleyrand had held out to him hopes of an eaſy accommodation on the terms he propoſed; but he had heard nothing further of the interview which was to have taken place for this adjuſtment; and therefore, as delay alone thus appears to be ſought for, Lord W. begs he may be furniſhed with an *ultimatum*; and in the event of its refuſal by the French Government, he requeſts he may be authoriſed to quit Paris.

No 60. Lord Hawkeſbury deſires Lord Whitworth to urge the ſame propoſitions as will be found at length in the *projet* (No 70.); and in the event of their not being complied with, to leave Paris.

No 61. A converſation between Lord Whitworth and M. Talleyrand, in which the latter obſerved, that the Firſt Conſul would for no conſideration on earth conſent to Great Britain holding the iſland of Malta in perpetuity; and that it was not ſo much the reeſtabliſhment of the Order, as our acquiring a poſſeſſion in the Mediterranean, that was the object of diſpute. Lord Whitworth mentions the conditions on which it would be given up. M. Talleyrand ſays that, rather than conſent to our keeping it for any term years, the Firſt Conſul would ſooner allow us to retain it altogether, as the latter might look like magnanimity, whereas the former could only be conſtrued into weakneſs.

No 62, 63. Two converſations between Lord Whitworth on the ſame ſubject, and with the ſame ſucceſs. In the latter converſation, Lord W. fixes on the day of his departure, provided no deciſive anſwer was given.

No 64. (April 29). Lord Whitworth ſtates his deſign of leaving Paris.

Incloſure to No 65. Lord Whitworth having appriſed the French Government, that unleſs the *ultimatum* was accepted in eight days, he muſt depart —now (May 2.) demands paſſports for himſelf and ſuite.

No 66. The Chief Conſul wiſhes to refer the diſpute to Spain and Holland, as parties to the treaty of Amiens; and alſo to conſult Ruſſia, Pruſſia, and Auſtria, as the guarantees, before any change can be made. In anſwer Lord Whitworth ſays the propoſition is hopeleſs, and again demands his paſſports (May 3).

No 67. Incloſes a note, in which the French Government throws out the idea, that Malta may be given up to either Auſtria, Ruſſia, or Pruſſia, as may be agreed upon.

No 68. (May 7). Lord Hawkeſbury informs Lord W. the propoſitions of the French Government are ſo looſe and unſatisfactory, it is impoſſible they could expect them to be accepted. Until the very moment you were on the point of leaving Paris, the French Government has declined making any diſtinct propoſition. To Ruſſia alone England would give Malta; but the Engliſh Government well knows that Ruſſia would not accept it. England muſt have Malta at leaſt for ten years, and the iſland of Lampedoſa. The period for which Malta is given up may be mentioned in a ſecret article, to conceal the ſacrifice on the part of France; but it may appear to depend on the period when the iſland of Lampedoſa ſhall be in good condition. If this is not accepted, Lord W. to leave Paris in 36 hours; but not to make any agreement, unleſs the conduct of the French Miniſter at Hamburgh is publicly diſavowed.

No 69. Lord Whitworth acknowledges receiving the above diſpatch: but on account of the accident of the Chief Conſul, did not communicate it for a day.

No 70.

Extract of a Diſpatch from Lord Whitworth to Lord Hawkesbury, dated Paris, May 12, 1803.

The meſſenger Sylveſter, as I mentioned in my laſt diſpatch, returned on the 9th, at twelve o'clock; and I wrote to M. Talleyrand, informing him of it, and deſiring him to name

an hour when I might wait upon him, in order to communicate to him the purport of my inſtructions. To this letter I received no anſwer that evening, or the following morning. Anxious to execute my orders, and to loſe no time, I encloſed the project furniſhed me by your Lordſhip, accompanied by an official note, and a private letter to M. de Talleyrand, and ſent it to the Foreign Department by Mr Mandeville, with directions to deliver it to M. de Talleyrand, or in his abſence to the *Chef du Bureau*. He delivered it accordingly to M. Durand, who promiſed to give it to his chief as ſoon as he came in, which he expected, he ſaid ſhortly. At half paſt four, having waited till that time in vain, I went myſelf to M. de Talleyrand; I was told that the family was in the country, and that they did not know when the Miniſter would be in town. Half an hour after I had returned home, the packet which Mr Mandeville had given into the hands of M. Durand, was brought to me, I believe, by a ſervant, with a verbal meſſage, that as M. de Talleyrand was in the country, it would be neceſſary that I ſhould ſend it to him there. In order to defeat, as much as depended upon me, *their intention of gaining time*, I wrote again to M. de Talleyrand, recapitulating the ſteps I had taken ſince the return of the meſſengers; and deſired Mr Talbot, the ſecretary of the embaſſy, to take it himſelf at nine o'clock at night, when I thought M. de Talleyrand would be at home, to his houſe at Meudon. He was, however, not at home. Mr Talbot was told that he was at St Cloud, where he had been all day, and that he would not be back until very late; he therefore left my private letter, with his name, and returned with the packet. It was my intention to have ſent it on the following morning to the Bureau, with orders that it ſhould be left there; at one o'clock in the morning I received a note from M. de Talleyrand, accounting for not having been able to anſwer me ſooner, and appointing to meet me at twelve o'clock at the *Bureau des Relations Exterieures*. I went at the appointed time; he began by apologizing for having ſo long poſtponed the interview, which he attributed to his having been the whole day with the First Conſul. We then entered upon buſineſs:—I told him, that, limited as I was by your Lordſhip's inſtructions, he could not be ſurpriſed at my impatience to acquit myſelf of my duty. I explained to him the nature of your Lordſhip's obſervations on the propoſal of the 4th, and it was conſidered as on one hand impracticable, from the refuſal of the Emperor of Ruſſia to take charge of Malta; and on the other, as being wholly inadequate to his Majeſty's juſt pretenſions. I gave him the note in which this was expreſſed, and the project, on which alone a ſatisfactory arrangement could be framed. He read them with apparent attention, and without many remarks; and after ſome time, he aſked me if I felt myſelf authorized, by my inſtructions, to conclude with him a convention, framed on the baſis of my project, or indeed extending that baſis, ſince the firſt article of it would be the perpetual poſſeſſion of Malta to England, in return for a conſideration. I told him, I moſt certainly was not authoriſed to enter into any engagement of ſuch a nature, which would make the negociation one of exchange, inſtead of a demand of ſatisfaction and ſecurity. To this he replied, that the ſatisfaction and ſecurity which we required was Malta, and that this we obtained. That the Firſt Conſul could not accede to what he conſidered, and what muſt be conſidered by the public and Europe, as the effect of coercion; but if it were poſſible to make the draught palatable, did I think myſelf juſtifiable in refuſing to do ſo? I told him, that acting in ſtrict compliance with my inſtructions, I could have no need of juſtification, and that I came to him with the determination of abiding ſtrictly by them. He contended, that by communicating a project, I merely ſtated on what grounds we would be willing to conclude; and that a counter-project, founded on the baſis of giving us what we required, could not be refuſed a fair diſcuſſion. To this I urged the reſolution of his Majeſty's Miniſters, to avoid every thing which could protract the negociation. That I ſaw no other means of acting up to thoſe views, than by making my ſtand on the project at all events. I urged him repeatedly to explain himſelf more fully

fully on the nature of the demand which he ſhould make for Malta, *but he could not, or would not explain himſelf.* After much conteſt, it was agreed, that the propoſal ſhould be ſubmitted to me in the courſe of a few hours, and that I ſhould determine on the line of conduct I might feel myſelf juſtified in purſuing; either to ſign it, to ſend it home, or to leave Paris.

The remainder of this day paſſed without receiving any communication from M. de Talleyrand. Upon this, I determined to demand my paſſports, by an official note, which I ſent this morning by Mr Mandeville, in order that I might leave Paris in the evening.

At two I renewed my demand of paſſports, and I was told I ſhould have them immediately. They arrived at five o'clock, and I propoſe ſetting out as ſoon as the carriages are ready.

First Inclosure referred to in No 70.

The underſigned, his Britannic Majeſty's Ambaſſador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the French republic, having tranſmitted to his court the propoſal which was made to him by the Miniſter for Foreign affairs, on the 3d inſt. has juſt received orders to tranſmit to his Excellency the accompanying project of convention, founded on the only baſis which his Majeſty conceives, under exiſting circumſtances, to be ſuſceptible of definitive and amicable arrangement. The Miniſter for Foreign Affairs will not fail to obſerve to what degree his Majeſty has endeavoured to conciliate the ſecurity of the Firſt Conſul. The underſigned flatters himſelf, that the Firſt Conſul, doing juſtice to theſe ſentiments, will adopt, in concert with his Majeſty, an expedient ſo ſuitable for reſtoring permanent tranquillity to both nations, and to all Europe.

WHITWORTH.

Second Inclosure referred to in No 70.

PROJECT I.—The French Government ſhall engage to make no oppoſition to the ceſſion of the iſland of Lampedoſa to his Majeſty by the King of the two Sicilies.

II.—In conſequence of the preſent ſtate of the Iſland of Lampedoſa, his Majeſty ſhall remain in poſſeſſion of the iſland of Malta until ſuch arrangements ſhall be made by him as may enable his Majeſty to occupy Lampedoſa as a naval ſtation; after which period, the iſland of Malta ſhall be given up to the inhabitants, and acknowledged as an independent ſtate.

III.—The territories of the Batavian republic ſhall be evacuated by the French forces within one month after the concluſion of a convention founded on the principles of this *project.*

IV.—The King of Etruria, and the Italian and Ligurian Republics, ſhall be acknowledged by his Majeſty.

V.—Switzerland ſhall be evacuated by the French forces.

VI.—A ſuitable territorial proviſion ſhall be aſſigned to the King of Sardinia, in Italy.

SECRET ARTICLE.—His Majeſty ſhall not be required by the French Government to evacuate the iſland of Malta until after the expiration of ten years.

Article IV. V. VI. may be entirely omitted, or muſt all be inſerted.

No 71. Is an extract of a diſpatch from Sir George Rumbold, Bart. to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated March 29, 1803, ſtating the circumſtances attending the inſertion in the Hamburgh papers of the Firſt Conſul's official article.

No 72. Is an abſtract of a diſpatch from Mr Hill to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Copenhagen, April 2. 1803, ſtating, that the French Miniſter had deſired that the article which had appeared in the Hamburgh newſpapers might be inſerted in thoſe printed at Altona, but in conſequence of the refuſal of the Magiſtrates of that place, an application was made to the Court of Copenhagen. The anſwer of the Daniſh Government is not ſtated.

Here the correſpondence ends. The Appendix contains Sebaſtiani's report; the view of the French Republic; and the manifeſto from the *Hamburgh Correſpondenten.* Alſo a letter from Spiridon Forreſti to Lord Hawkeſbury, informing him, that "the Chief Conſul had taken under his protection the Catholic, Apoſtolic, and Roman Churches of the Republic of the Seven Iſlands—And a letter from the French Miniſter to C. Fauvelet at Dublin, which among other inſtructions gives the following:—

11. You are required to furniſh a plan of the ports of your diſtrict,

with a ſpecification of the ſoundings for mooring veſſels.

12. If no plan of the ports can be procured, you are to point out with what wind veſſels can come in and go out, and what is the greateſt draught of water with which veſſels can enter therein deeply laden?

SIR ROBERT WILSON'S ANSWER.

To the Editor.

Sir,

In the official correſpondence lately publiſhed, there appears ſome remarks which the French Ambaſſador was inſtructed to make on my Hiſtory of the Expedition to Egypt, and of which I feel called upon to take notice, not in perſonal controverſy with General Andreoſſy, for, conſcious of the ſuperior virtue of my cauſe, I find myſelf neither aggrieved nor irritated by the language he has uſed; but that the public may not attribute my ſilence to a deſire of evading further diſcuſſion, and thus the ſhallow mode of contradiction adopted by the Chief Conſul acquire an unmerited conſideration.

The Ambaſſador obſerves, "That a Colonel in the Engliſh army has publiſhed a work in England filled with the moſt atrocious and diſguſting calumnies againſt the French army and its General.—The lies it contains have been contradicted by the reception which Colonel Sebaſtiani experienced. The publicity of his report was at once a refutation and reparation which the French army had a right to expect."

But ſurely a new ſignification muſt have been attached in France to the word calumny, when ſuch a term is applied to my account of the conduct of the French troops in Egypt, and the conſequent diſpoſition of the inhabitants towards them!

Independent, however, of the proofs to be adduced in corroboration of my ſtatement, Europe may juſtly appreciate the probable truth of what I have written, when ſhe recollects the unparalelled ſufferings endured by the unoffending countries into which, during the laſt war, a French army penetrated, and ſhe will at leaſt heſitate to believe that the ſame armies ſhould voluntarily ameliorate their conduct in a country more remote, where the atrocities they might commit would be leſs liable to publicity; and that this extraordinary change ſhould be in favour of a people whoſe principles and reſiſtance might have excited the reſentment of more generous invaders.

I will not enter into an unneceſſary detail of the numerous facts which I could urge; but I appeal to the honour of every Britiſh officer employed in Egypt, whether thoſe obſervations are not ſacredly true which deſcribe the French as being hateful to the inhabitants of that country, which repreſent them as having merited that hatred from the ruin and devaſtation with which their progreſs through it has been marked; and I am ready, if there be one who refuſes to ſanction this relation, to reſign for ever every pretenſion to honourable reputation, and ſubmit, without a further ſtruggle, to that odium which ſhould attach to calumny and a perverſion of truth.

But, Sir, I feel confident there is no individual who will not amply confirm all that I have written on this ſubject; and perhaps Europe has a right to condemn me for not having made the accuſation ſtill ſtronger, when I can produce frequent general orders of the French army for the deſtruction of villages, and their inhabitants; when I can prove, that above 20,000 of the natives periſhed by the ſwords of the French ſoldiery; and that every act of violence was committed, and particularly in Upper Egypt, which could outrage humanity, and diſgrace the character of civiliſed nations. When writing a hiſtory of the campaign, was it poſſible not to expreſs indignation againſt the authors of ſuch calamities? Would it have been natural not to have felt the animation of that virtuous pride, which a reflection on the different conduct of the Britiſh ſoldiery muſt inſpire in the breaſt of every Briton? I have aſſerted that a Britiſh ſoldier could traverſe alone through any part of Egypt, or even penetrate into the deſart, ſecure from injury or inſult. I have deſcribed the natives as conſidering the Britiſh their benefactors and protectors, ſoliciting opportunities to manifeſt their grati-

gratitude, and eſteeming their uniform as ſacred as the turban of Mahometaniſm; and, I may venture to predict, that hereafter, the French traveller will be compelled to conceal the name of his nation, and owe his ſecurity to the aſſumption of the Britiſh character.

But, Sir, does the effect of Colonel Sebaſtiani's report juſtify the Chief Conſul's concluſion, 'that it is a complete refutation of what I have advanced, even if we attach to that report implicit belief in its candour and veracity?—Is it poſſible that the Chief Conſul can ſuppoſe the world will trace reſpect for the French name in the circumſtance which occurred to Colonel Sebaſtiani at Cairo, and which rendered it neceſſary for him to demand protection from the Vizir? or would he imagine, that the apologue of D'Gezzar Pacha, was not intelligible even previous to the inſtructions being publiſhed, which M. Talleyrand ſent to the French commercial agents.

That illuſtrious Senator, to whoſe virtues and ſtupendous talents England owes ſo much of her proſperity, has declared, that this report of Colonel Sebaſtiani in no caſe contradicts my ſtatement; and I ſhould conſider that high opinion as amply ſufficient to remove any impreſſion which the French Ambaſſador's note might otherwiſe have made; did I not think it a duty to preſs ſome obſervations on that part of the paragraph which alludes to the direct accuſation againſt General Bonaparte, that the public may know I was fully aware of the important reſponſibility which I had voluntarily undertaken, and in which much national honour was involved. I would wiſh the world ſeriouſly to examine, whether the accuſer or accuſed have ſhrunk from the inveſtigation, and then hold him as guilty who has withdrawn from the tribunal of inquiry.

I avowed that I was his public accuſer, I ſtood prepared to ſupport the charges. The Courts of my country were open to that mode of trial, which, as an innocent man, he could alone have required, but of which he did not dare to avail himſelf. It was no anonymous libeller againſt whom he was to have filed his anſwer, but againſt one (and without any indecent vanity I may ſay it), whoſe rank and character would have juſtified his moſt ſerious attention.

The charges were too awful to be treated with neglect, and we know that they have not been read with indifference. Nor is it poſſible that the Firſt Conſul can imagine that the fame of General Bonaparte is leſs ſullied becauſe a few ſnuff-boxes, bearing his portrait, were received by ſome abject or avaricious individuals with expreſſions of eſteem. Or can he hope that the contemptible, but not leſs unworthy inſinuation directed againſt the gallant and eſtimable Britiſh General, will divert mankind from a reflection on the crimes with which he ſtands arraigned?

Fortunately for Europe, ſhe is daily becoming more intimately acquainted with the character of this hitherto miſconceived man; and I confeſs that I feel conſiderable gratification when I indulge the thought that I have contributed to its developement.

Succeſs may, for inſcrutable purpoſes, continue to attend him. Abject Senates may decree him a Throne or the Pantheon; but hiſtory ſhall render injured humanity juſtice, and an indignant poſterity inſcribe on his cenotaph—

Ille venena Colchica
Et quicquid usquam concipitur nefas,
Tractavit.

I am, Sir, yours,
ROBERT WILSON, K. M. T.
Lieutenant-Colonel.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

Since our laſt report, the Firſt Conſul has commenced his long talked of journey, receiving in his progreſs the moſt fulſome adulation in the addreſſes preſented to him by the magiſtrates and inhabitants of the different towns through which he paſſes. At Boulogne, Calais, Dunkirk, and the towns along the coaſt which were honoured

noured with his preſence, he was minutely attentive in examining the harbours, fortifications, &c.; and ſometimes he completed his ſurvey, accompanied only by a ſingle confidential attendant, even before it was known that he had left the hotel where he lodged.

General Mortier has impoſed very heavy contributions upon the unfortunate people of Hanover; and has ordered the arms of the King of England to be taken down throughout the Electorate.

The Batavian Government has at length declared to the Legiſlative Body the neceſſity to which it is reduced, of co-operating with Bonaparte in the proſecution of the war. It ſurrenders into his hands its preſent riches, its reſources, its national force by land and ſea; but it ſurrenders them with the deepeſt ſorrow, and the moſt heart-felt reluctance.

The Conſular decree, prohibiting the importation of Britiſh manufactures, and colonial produce in neutral veſſels, into the ports of France, has been publiſhed in the Bruſſels *Oracle* of the 25th, but it is ſtill omitted in the official paper. The following is the decree.

BRITISH COMMERCE.

Decree, dated Paris, June 21.

Art. 1. Dating from the publication of the preſent decree, there ſhall not be received in the ports of the Republic any colonial produce coming from the Engliſh colonies, nor any merchandiſe coming directly or indirectly from England. In conſequence, all colonial produce or merchandiſe coming from the Engliſh manufactories or Engliſh colonies, ſhall be confiſcated.

2. Neutral ſhips, deſtined for the ports of the Republic, ſhall be furniſhed with a certificate of delivery from the Commiſſary or Agent of Commercial Relations of the Republic at the port of embarkation, which certificate ſhall mention the name of the ſhip and the captain, the nature of the cargo, the number of the crew, and the deſtination of the veſſel; in that declaration, the Commiſſary ſhall certify that he has ſeen the loading completed under his inſpection, and that the merchandiſe is not Engliſh manufacture, and does not come from England, nor from her colonies. A duplicate of that declaration ſhall be ſent to the Miniſter of the Interior by the Commiſſary of the Republic, on the day of the ſailing of the veſſel.

3. The Captain, who, through forgetfulneſs of the form, or through change of deſtination, ſhall not be furniſhed with a ſimilar declaration, ſhall not be admitted into the ports of the Republic, but upon condition of loading in return French manufactures equal in value to the amount of his cargo. The Director of the Cuſtoms ſhall ſend to the Prefect of the Department the ſtatement of his cargo, and that of the merchandiſe taken in return. Upon that ſtatement, the Prefect ſhall deliver a permit of departure from the port.

4. The Miniſter of the Interior, of Foreign Affairs, and of Finance, are charged with the execution of the preſent decree. (Signed)

BONAPARTE.

(*Extract from a Private Letter.*)

Paris, June 25. Yeſterday, after the maſs, the Firſt Conſul left St Cloud for Brabant, and no ſooner was he gone than all the legions of the police agents and ſpies here were put into unuſual activity; and laſt night, after dark, all perſons paſſing in the ſtreets were aſked their cards of citizens, or paſſports; and thoſe who had neither were arreſted, and were this morning carried before the Prefect of the Police, to give an account of themſelves. Every body entering or leaving Paris muſt ſhew his paſs at the barriers; and if he has none, he is ſtopped, and ſent to the neareſt Commiſſary of Police to be examined.

Moſt of the Engliſh, who had permiſſion to reſide at Paris, received, on the 23d, orders to join their countrymen at Fontainbleau in twenty four hours.

The guards are doubled every where, and a company of the Conſular Guards placed to protect the telegraph. General Junot, the Commander at Paris, has been ordered by the Conſul to head the patrole himſelf, every night, during the Conſul's abſence.

Domiciliary viſits were made laſt night in the Palais Royal, and in all the hotels of the neighbouring ſtreets, and ſeveral ſuſpected perſons were taken up and ſent to priſon.

Thoſe

Thoſe meaſures of terror have been adviſed by the Grand Judge, and the Senators Lucien Bonaparte, Fouche, Roederer, and Le Fevre, on a pretended diſcovery of the Royaliſt and Jacobine Factions, to ſpread diſcontent, and to propoſe a new revolution.

The Senator Sieyes was told on the 20th inſtant, by the firſt phyſician to the Firſt Conſul, that a viſit to Spa, for ſix weeks, would be very uſeful to his health, and *he left Paris to drink the Spa waters.*

WEST INDIES.

July 8. Jamaica papers were received in town yeſterday. The papers were up to the 21ſt of May inclufive; the letters were of a later date. Some of them ſtate, that one of the ſevereſt battles has lately taken place in St Domingo, between the Blacks and the French troops, that had ever been fought in that iſland, and that the French were nearly all cut to pieces. The letters further ſtate, that there is no doubt but the remaining French troops will take the earlieſt opportunity to evacuate the iſland. Almoſt all the Poliſh troops have been killed.

By the Jamaica mail of yeſterday, we have an account of ſeveral French ſhips of the line having ſailed from St Domingo to North America. It is to be hoped they will be narrowly watched.

A letter received in Glaſgow from St Vincent's, dated 22d May, mentions that the French appear to lay their account with loſing all their iſlands, except Martinique, where they intend to make a ſtand.

AMERICA.

A letter to a gentleman in Glaſgow, from Montreal, ſtates, that a moſt deſtructive fire took place there on the 6th ult. About 30 buildings were burned down, among which were the Epiſcopalian Church, the Jeſuits' Church, the College, and the Priſon. The loſs is ſuppoſed not to be leſs than 30,000l.

BRITISH INTELLIGENCE.

LONDON.

July 1. On Wedneſday, Captain Briſac, late of the Iris, convicted of a fraud upon Government in regard to the purchaſe of ſtores, was brought up to the Court of King's Bench. Mr Juſtice Groſe, after enlarging on the enormity of the offence, paſſed the ſentence of the Court, which was, that he ſhould pay a fine of 300l. be impriſoned eighteen months in the King's Bench, and once during that time to ſtand in and upon the pillory, oppoſite the Admiralty, between the hours of twelve and two.

2. This afternoon, about three o' clock, a thunder ſtorm commenced, which, particularly in the north eaſt part of the city and the adjacent country, was tremendouſly awful. The morning was intenſely hot, and a ſhort time previous to the ſtorm, the ſenſation of heat became oppreſſive. The drops of rain that fell were larger than any we ever ſaw, and the ſky had a peculiar darkneſs. The flaſhes of lightning were of the moſt vivid forked kind ever beheld. The houſe of Mrs Colley, at Blackheath, was nearly demoliſhed by lightning, and the adjoining building was much damaged: The ſervant maid was for two hours deprived of her ſenſes by the ſhock. Numerous windows, lamps, &c. in the metropolis, were deſtroyed by the hail.

8. This morning Mr Aſſlett was put to the bar, at the Old Bailey, charged with embezzling Exchequer bills, the property of the Bank, to the amount of 200,000l. Mr Knowles opened the pleadings, and was followed by Mr Garrow, who, in an able ſpeech, laid before the Jury the details of the caſe. When the firſt witneſs was called, but before he came into Court, Mr Erſkine roſe, and took an objection to the indictment; he contended, that according to the act of Parliament of 1799, the bills in queſtion did not come under the deſcription of Exchequer bills. The ground of his objection was, that they were ſigned by Mr Jennings, who, though authoriſed to ſign the bills iſſued under the act of 1799, had not got that authority renewed by the ſubſequent acts, under which the bills which were the ſubject of the indictment had been iſſued. The Court ſuſtained this objection, and the priſoner was immediately acquitted.

On the motion of Mr Garrow, however, he was remanded, to anſwer the conſequence of a civil action for debt,

the

the Bank having been obliged to repay the ſums he had embezzled. The Court was very much crowded.

Mr Drummond, the Miniſter from England, arrived at Conſtantinople on the 13th of May, on board an Engliſh frigate. The frigate, on entering the port, fired a ſalute in honour of the Grand Signior, of 21 guns. The Ruſſian Ambaſſador, M. Italinſky, viſited Mr Drummond, the next day, on board the frigate.

On Thurſday, in the Court of King's Bench, a cafe of *crim. con.* was tried before Lord Ellenborough and a ſpecial jury. The plaintiff was Mr Richard Smith, manufacturer in Birmingham, againſt William Smith, his own couſin-german. The damages were laid at 6000l.—The jury found a verdict for 3000l.

Weſtminſter Abbey

July 9. About two o'clock, an accident happened, which, for a time, threatened the deſtruction of that magnificent and venerable ſtructure Weſtminſter Abbey. The ſquare tower, in the centre of the croſs aiſles, over that part of the choir which is between the pulpit and the altar, was diſcovered to be in flames; this part of the roof, which is flat, ſupported by braces of timber and plaſter, moſt curiouſly gilt, was in a ſhort time in a blaze. From the great height it was impoſſible to carry water ſpeedily to it; to obviate this difficulty the ſoldiers and volunteers ranged themſelves from the Abbey to the water ſide, and a number of buckets were procured, which they filled and handed from one to another, and afterwards raiſed to the top by means of ropes. The fall of the melted lead, and of the half burnt timber was tremendous, and would ſoon have laid the whole choir in aſhes, but for the exertions of the engines, which arrived in time to play upon and extinguiſh the burning wood as it fell, and, we are happy to ſtate, that the organ and the choir, between it and the pulpit, and the monuments in general, have eſcaped with very little damage, except what the water from the engines may effect.

By ſix o'clock the fire was completely extinguiſhed, without extending to any other part of the roof or building, except the top of the tower in which it began. The flames aſcended a great height above the tower, and ſoon attracted the notice of ſpectators in every part of the town.

Among thoſe who ſhewed the greateſt intereſt were the Duke of York, Prince William of Glouceſter, Lord Weſtmoreland, the Lord Chancellor, the Dukes of Glouceſter and Norfolk, and Mr Windham, who was peculiarly conſpicuous.

But a moſt affecting part of the ſpectacle was afforded by the Weſtminſter boys, who ranged themſelves in lines to ſupply and work the engines ſtationed in the cloiſters. They ſerved them moſt effectually, diſplaying a zeal and ſtrength beyond their years.

This accident, by which one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures in the kingdom was expoſed to deſtruction, aroſe, it is believed, from the negligence of the plumbers leaving their kettles on the fire while they were at dinner. It is ſhameful that pains are not taken to prevent ſuch miſchief. The church of St Paul's, Covent Garden, and the roofs of Norwich and another cathedral, the name of which we do not now recollect, were deſtroyed within theſe few years by ſimilar negligence. Thoſe whoſe buſineſs it is to ſuperintend the repairs of ſuch monuments of antiquity as Weſtminſter Abbey ought to ſtipulate with the contractors that every precaution ſhould be taken to guard againſt ſuch accidents.

The damage done is the total deſtruction of the lanthorn, and much of the timber adjoining, the communion-table, pews, part of the choir, ſtalls, and pulpit. The organ, one of the fineſt in the kingdom, happily was not injured. The damage ſuſtained, may, perhaps, be eſtimated at 4000l. or 5000l.

15. Yeſterday there was a meeting of the Proprietors of Bank Stock, it being a General Quarterly Court, when it appeared that the defalcation occaſioned by Mr Aſtlett's miſconduct, amounts to 322,000l. That the Bank had redeemed 191,000l. in Exchequer bills, by paying about 70,000l. for which Mr Aſtlett had pawned bills to that amount.

The ſpirited meaſure adopted by Government for ſtrictly blockading the Elbe, meets with general approbation. To whatever conſequences the meaſure may

may lead, it muſt be the policy of this country, to ſhow that in every point of attack we have it in our own power to inflict more injury than we ſuffer. This is the argument which alone ſeems ſuited to the times in which we live. We muſt multiply our reſources and increaſe our force by the activity with which they are exerted, and the courage with which they are diſplayed. We ſhall then poſſeſs that confidence of our own ſtrength which is eſſential to ſucceſs, and inſpire in others that opinion of it which is neceſſary to avert their hoſtility, to command their reſpect, and to gain their co-operation. We muſt quit ourſelves like men, and be ſtrong.

EDINBURGH.

We regret that we have not been able to overtake the inſertion of various articles relative to the defence of the country, &c. this month. The ſpirited exertions of ſocieties, as well as of individuals, will be noticed in next number.

June 29. The Preſbytery of Edinburgh ordered a call to be moderated on the 18th of Auguſt to the Rev. Mr Anderſon, Miniſter of the College Church, to be Miniſter of the Old Grey Friars Church, in room of the late Dr Erſkine.

30. The Sheriff, upon a complaint againſt two carters for galloping with the carts a-breaſt on the road near Colt Bridge, fined one of them, being his ſecond offence, in 30s. and the other in 10s. and ſentenced both of them to one month's confinement in Bridewell. Two gentlemen in a gig were obliged to drive into a field to avoid them.

30. On Thurſday on the road between Ayr and Irvine, a man fell from his horſe and was ſeverely hurt. Lord Montgomery paſſed the place recently after the accident, who not only diſpatched his ſervant inſtantly to Irvine for a carriage and medical aſſiſtance, but remained himſelf with the poor man till the return of the ſervant, contributing as much as he could to his interim aſſiſtance and relief. After the ſervant's return, the man was placed in the carriage, and his Lordſhip ſaw him conveyed into one of the principal Inns in Irvine, and furniſhed with the beſt medical aid in the town. We are ſorry to ſay, that the poor man died next morning.

Laſt week the Banking Company at Newcaſtle, under the firm of Surtees, Burdon, & Brandline, found it neceſſary to inform the public, that they found themſelves obliged to requeſt the indulgence of the holders of their notes and ſecurities, for a ſhort period, for the purpoſe of making effectual arrangements for the diſcharge of the demands upon them. Their notes were in very general circulation; and from the opulence of the parties, there is little doubt that their credit will be ſpeedily re-eſtabliſhed.

July 1. The Edinburgh Royal Highland Volunteers, commanded by Col. M'Gregor Murray, made an offer of their ſervices to march to any part of Great Britain or Ireland, in caſe of invaſion.

2. Official intelligence was received this morning by the Deputy Pruſſian Conſul at Leith, that Lord Hawkeſbury has given notice to the Pruſſian Ambaſſador, that in conſequence of the French having forcibly occupied part of the ſhores of the Elbe, for the purpoſe of obſtructing the navigation of Britiſh ſhips in that river, the Britiſh Government has found itſelf under the neceſſity to eſtabliſh the moſt rigorous blockade of the mouth of the Elbe, to prevent all ſhips from entering or coming out of the river.

A letter received lately at Leith from Copenhagen, ſtates, that the Prince of Denmark has gone to Holſtein, where an army of 30,000 men is aſſembling to oppoſe the French, ſhould they attempt to advance farther than Hanover.

7. This morning an unfortunate accident happened on board the ſhip City of Dantzic, diſcharging timber in Leith harbour. A ſpare top maſt, fixed as an outrigger on the top of the ſtern, unluckily broke looſe, by which three of the crew of the veſſel (Pruſſians,) who were at the tackle, were precipitated headlong from the top of the ſtern to a raft of timber below—a height of not leſs than 30 feet. None of them were killed; one of them was dreadfully bruiſed, another had his thigh bone broken, and the third, it was thought, broke his back. Medical

aſſiſtance was immediately procured, and as ſoon as a proper carriage could be obtained, they were ſent to the Infirmary.

Sea Fenciblet.

A Sea Fencible eſtabliſhment, upon a very extenſive ſcale, for the protection of Great Britain, is to be adopted. It is to compriſe all fiſhermen, and other perſons occupied in the ports, and upon the coaſt, but who are now, from the very nature of their occupations, protected from the impreſs.—Theſe are to be claſſed in diſtricts, and put under the command of proper naval officers, and are to act as the emergency of the moment may require, aſhore or on float. A hundred Poſt-Captains and Commanders, with a proportionate number of Lieutenants, are already appointed to this ſervice.

The following are the officers for the eaſt coaſt of Scotland:—

Diſtrict, From North Shields to St Abb's Head.—*General Rendezvous*, Berwick.—*Captains*, Sir W. H. Douglas, Edward Ramage, D. Ramſay.

Diſtrict, The Frith of Forth.—*General Rendezvous*, Leith.—*Captains*, John Clements, John Brodie, J. H. Tait.

The following are ſome particulars of the blowing up of the powder mill at Stobbs, near Arniſton.

The accident originated in the corning houſe, from thence communicated to a charge houſe, and thence to a mill. At the time the exploſion took place, Mr Hunter was on the outſide of his garden, with a foot rule and a pencil in his hand going to meaſure ſome wood. In a moment a large ſtone fell upon him as if from the firmament, ſtruck him on the left ſhoulder, and carried away his arm. The body was thrown into a ditch, and the arm was driven through a hedge into his own garden; the foot rule and pencil were found in the ſame direction.

There were two men in the corning houſe when it blew up. One of them was ſhattered to pieces; part of his body was found about 300 yards from the houſe, and in different directions; the the other was buried amidſt the ruins, dreadfully bruiſed, and half roaſted. He was dug out alive, and though in inexpreſſible agony, his recollection had not forſaken him, but he could give no account of the cauſe of the accident.—He lived till one o'clock of the day, when death, to him a welcome meſſenger, terminated his pain.

The violence of the exploſion was ſuch, that the premiſes were blown in pieces, and the fragments ſcattered in all directions. Several trees at ſome diſtance were thrown down and broken in pieces, and large logs of wood were blown to a very great diſtance. The windows of ſeveral houſes a good way diſtant, were ſhivered to pieces.

In pulling down an old houſe in the Caſtle Gable, Perth, there was found ſecreted in the wall, a bag containing a great number of Scottiſh ſilver and copper coins, chiefly of James III. and IV.

A fine young man, of the name of Molliſon, while bathing at old Montroſe, on Saturday evening laſt, was unfortunately drowned.

Several offers to raiſe volunteer corps have already been forwarded from the counties of Perth, Fife, and Angus.

For ſome time paſt the ſouth eaſt coaſt of Angus has been much frequented by ſmugglers of foreign ſpirits, particularly gin. At Panbridge, a few weeks ago an exciſeman, watching their motions under cover of night, was obſerved by them, and carried priſoner to a public houſe in the neighbourhood, where he was detained till the cargo was diſpoſed of. One man could ill contend againſt a crew of armed and deſperate banditti. The revenue officer, therefore, wiſely reſolved to make theſe gentlemen his friends, and treated them with drink. In the courſe of converſation they informed him, that in the ſhort ſpace of a few weeks before, they had ſafely landed and diſpoſed of, on that coaſt, 2200 ankers of ſpirits.

At Longforgan market, in the Carſe of Gowrie, the ſhew of cattle was not great, and the purchaſers at firſt were heſitating; but afterwards the high prices aſked were given.—At Monifieth market, the ſhew of cattle was much larger than uſual in that place, the prices were well ſupported, the ſale quick, and many droves were bought up by the Fife graziers, to be fattened for England.

Autumn Circuits.

The following are the appointments for the enſuing Autumn Circuits:

South

South.—Lds Juſtice Clerk & Methven.

Ayr,	Friday,	Sept. 9.
Dumfries,	Wedneſday,	Sept. 14.
Jedburgh,	Tueſday,	Sept. 20.

West.—Lords Dunſinnan and Cullen.

Stirling,	Tueſday,	Sept. 13.
Inverary,	Saturday,	Sept. 17.
Glaſgow,	Friday,	Sept. 23.

North.—Lords Craig and Armadale.

Inverneſs,	Wedneſday,	Sept. 7.
Aberdeen,	Wedneſday,	Sept. 14.
Perth,	Tueſday,	Sept. 20.

From Berwick upon Tweed, and up all the Frith of Forth, there never was a finer appearance of herrings than at this preſent time.

On Monday night a young officer was, in bathing, unfortunately drowned, near Dumbarton Caſtle. A ſoldier who was preparing to ſwim to his aſſiſtance, it is ſaid, was diſſuaded by a boy from proceeding, on a conviction, that he was in no danger.

Upon Friday laſt, the Magiſtrates and Town Council of Paiſley voted a loyal addreſs to his Majeſty on the preſent ſituation of national affairs, and are to tranſmit it to Mr M'Dowall, M. P. for preſentation.

We hear from Hawick, that on Tueſday laſt there was a conſiderable ſhew of excellent cattle, competing for the premiums offered by the Farmers' Club, when Sir John Buchanan Riddell, Bart. was found entitled to the higheſt premium for the beſt bull, and Thomas Elliot Ogilvie, Eſq. of Cheſters, to the premium for the beſt quey, of their own breeding.

July 1. We learn from Cowall, Argyleſhire, that the houſes on the farm of Braingerten, oppoſite Finnart, were lately conſumed by fire, owing to the tackſman there ſetting fire to a magpie's neſt, a ſpark from which fell on the top of the houſe, and communicated from one to another, until every one on the farm was deſtroyed, one barn excepted.

2. At Ceres market, in Fife, on Friday ſe'ennight, there was a number of Iriſh young horſes, of good bone and ſize, chiefly of a black colour, that brought very high prices. On Tueſday laſt was held at Perth, the Midſummer market there, at which appeared a large ſhew of both horſes and black cattle. The prices of both were high and well ſupported, and many cattle were carried ſouthward for England.

A letter from a ſeaman belonging to Greenock, dated on board his Majeſty's ſhip Naiad, 1ſt curt. ſays, "We have had very good luck ſince the declaration of war—We have taken, in company with the Hazard ſloop of war, fifteen veſſels, value 160,000l, and we are now cruizing within two gun ſhot of the enemy."

16. At Kelſo fair, on Tueſday laſt, there were but few cattle; what were ſold fetched high prices.

18. On Saturday the Royal Mid Lothian Volunteer cavalry were reviewed at Dalkeith, by Lieut. General Vyſe, who expreſſed much ſatisfaction at their diſcipline and appearance. They had been in quarters for the preceding ten days—the county troops at Dalkeith, and the Edinburgh troops at Muſſelburgh.

On Wedneſday laſt a Committee of the Convention of Royal Burghs, attended by ſeveral gentlemen from Leith intereſted in the herring fiſhing, examined Mr Robertſon's improved loom for weaving fiſhing nets. It was approved of, and payment ordered for the premium. Inſtead of the ſingle ſhuttle, it goes on the ſame principle as the incle manufactory looms.

The Convention alſo voted a premium to Mr Girvan, for his Eſſay on the Cultivation of Willows, which is ordered to be printed for the benefit of the Highlands of Scotland.

Mr John Fraſer, merchant, of South Bridge, Edinburgh, is appointed Swediſh Vice Conſul at the port of Leith.

We learn that the Beacon on the Bell Rock is now complete. It is only temporary, to try the force of the ſea, before a light houſe is erected; it muſt, therefore, not be depended on, as a gale of wind may drive it down. In this erection the public is much indebted to the Hon. Commiſſioners of Cuſtoms and Exciſe, and to Captain John Naſh, Regulating Captain at Leith, who ordered the veſſels under their orders to aſſiſt in erecting the ſaid Beacon ſo far as their duty would allow them, which they all did in the moſt handſome manner.

His Majeſty has ſigned a warrant, ordaining a letter to be paſſed, under the

the ſeal appointed by the treaty of Union to be kept and made uſe of in place of the Great Seal of Scotland, giving, granting, and diſpoſing unto Sir Thomas Livingſtone, Baronet, a Captain of the Royal Navy, the cuſtody and keeping of the Palace of Linlithgow, &c. and alſo the Cuſtody and keeping of the Caſtle of Blackneſs, &c. vice Douglas, Duke of Hamilton, deceaſed.

Theſe offices were forfeited to the Crown anno 1715, by Hereditary Conſtable and Keeper James Livingſtone, the then Earl of Linlithgow and Callender, and they have been granted to Sir Thomas Livingſtone in conſequence of his being the Earl's heir male and repreſentative.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

June 24. At Inverkeithing, Mr John Mackarſie, ſurgeon, to Miſs Margaret Stewart, youngeſt daughter of the late Lieut. William Stewart, of the Royal Navy.

27. At Kilmarnock, Mr William Wallace, merchant there, to Miſs Margaret Todd, eldeſt daughter of the late Rev. Michael Todd, miniſter of Dreghorn.

28. At North Berwick, Capt. Fortye, of the 8th regiment, to Miſs Murray, daughter of the late Rev. Mr Murray, of that place.

At Dumfries, Samuel Denholm Young, Eſq. ſon of W. Denholm, Eſq. of Gullyhill, to Miſs Goldie, daughter of the deceaſed Mr Archibald Goldie, at Shaws of Tinwald.

Mr Hugh Miller, ſurgeon in Glaſgow, to Miſs Janet Barr, daughter of the late Mr James Barr, Rector of the grammar ſchool there.

BIRTHS

June 28. At London, Lady Cathcart, a ſon.

July 3. At Craigends, Mrs Cunningham, a daughter.

—At Herdmanſton, the Right Hon. Lady Sinclair, a ſon.

13. At Ayr, the Hon. Mrs Rollo, a ſon.

25. Mrs Robertſon of Ladyrigg, a daughter.

29. At Mellerſtain, Mrs Baillie of Jerviſwood, a daughter.

At Marſkhall, the Lady of the Hon. [illegible] Dundas, a daughter.

DEATHS.

May 27. At Edinburgh Mr James Cargill, late merchant in Edinburgh, in the 89th year of his age.

28. At Elgin, Mr James Munro, ſurgeon, ſon of Mr John Munro, dyer there in the 22d year of age.

At the Manſe of St Monance, Fife, the Rev. Archibald Gillies, miniſter of that pariſh, in the 71ſt year of his age, and 33d of his miniſtry.

June 1. At Clatto, Mr Robert Low, eldeſt ſon of Robert Low, Eſq. of Clatto.

At Glencairn, the Rev. Mr Grierſon, miniſter of that pariſh.

3. At the Manſe of Dalmellington, Mrs M'Millan, jun. of Holm.

4. At Hamilton, Patrick Scott Eſq. of Kirkland.

—At Forglen, the Right Hon. William Lord Banff.

—At the Manſe of Falkirk, Mr William Wilſon, eldeſt ſon of the Rev. Dr James Wilſon, miniſter of that pariſh. He was in the 18th year of his age, and a very promiſing young man.

—At Ord, in the 81ſt year of his age, Thomas M'Kenzie, Eſq. of Ord.

—At Drynie, in the 86th year of his age, Kenneth M'Kenzie, Eſq. brother of the late John M'Kenzie of Applecroſs.

6. At Ballanlay, iſland of Bute, George Brown, farmer, aged 77 years. He was attended to the grave by ſeven ſons, the youngeſt of them 25 years old.

7. At Edinburgh, Major-General George Cuninghame, of the late Scots Brigade.

8. At Greenock, in the 18th year of his age, William Stuart, ſon to Mr John Stuart, merchant.

9. At Grantham, on the road to Scotland, Patrick Heron, Eſq. of Heron.

—James Cheape, Eſq. of Wemfield, in his 94th year.

13. At Ballindean, Sir John Wedderburn of Ballindean, Bart.

15. At Raith, the Lady of Colonel Ferguſon, and daughter of Sir Hector Munro, K. B.

Edinburgh, July 28.

Oat-meal, 1s. 3½d. Barley-meal, 1s. Peaſe-meal, 11d.

Haddington, July 30.

Wheat, 35s. Barley, 18s. Oats, 20s. Peaſe, 19s. Beans, 19s. 6d.

STOCKS.—*July* 20.

Bank Stock 140½	New 5 per C. 89⅝
3 per C. Red. 54	Long Ann. 16¼
3 per C. Conſ. ——	India Stock 157
4 per Cent. 69½	Omnium 6½ diſ.
5 per C. Ann. 85¼	